



FRANCIS DRAKE SETTING OUT ON HIS VOYAGE IN THE GOLDEN HIND

(Drawn specially for this book by T. Heath Robinson.)

(See page 8.)

General Editor - - G S MAXTON, M.A.

THE
MARCH OF HISTORY¹⁴⁸
BOOK IV.

THE MIDDLE AGES TO THE END
OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY
1485-1689

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*Illustrations from contemporary sources, and also specially drawn
by T. Heath Robinson, Gordon Browne, and Ambrose Dudley*

New Edition 1929

MAX MCDUGALL'S
EDUCATIONAL COY LTD

LONDON
9 FARRINGTON AVENUE, E.C.4

EDINBURGH
EAST CLAREMONT STREET.

PREFACE

In this book—in accord with the general plan of the Series—it has been our aim —

1 To tell in simple language the story of our country from the end of the Middle Ages to the end of the seven-teenth century, dwelling particularly on its social aspect to show the conditions under which the people lived—their manners and customs, how they worked and how they spent their leisure—and to give some insight as to how they were governed

2 Not to neglect, but to keep within appropriate limits, that political history which had its effect on the life of the community to show, generally, the reaction of social and political events upon each other

3 To create historical atmosphere—

- (a) by incorporating in the text easily read excerpts from the works of contemporary writers touching on the subjects described,
- (b) by giving reproductions, as far as possible, of illustrations taken from contemporary sources

4 To develop a sense of sequence in history by means of time charts, both tabular and pictorial, which also help to serve as a framework for the narrative (Political events however, are not in all cases regarded as serving a purpose sufficiently useful to demand elaborate treatment in the text. Some of them, therefore, are marked on the charts only)

5 To develop the constructive and expressive power of the pupil (and incidentally to encourage the study of local history) and to test his reading by means of a series of specially designed Questions and Exercises

6 To direct the pupil to books within his compass—interesting stories particularly—bearing upon the subjects treated in the text

G. S. M.

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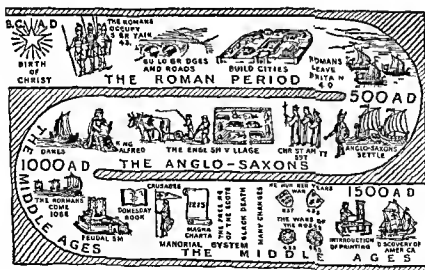
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Revisory Chart showing chief events which happened before the period covered in this book.

PART I.

THE PASSING OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

Under the Feudal System.

You all remember the story of Dick Whittington, who was scullery boy in the house of a rich London merchant. He ventured a little trading on his own account, and prospered so greatly that in the end he married his master's daughter and became Lord Mayor of London town.

Perhaps at Christmas time you have seen the pantomime made from this story and thought it a fairy tale, like "Cinderella" and "Aladdin" and the other pantomimes. Yet though it is not all true, there was really a Dick Whittington, "thrice Mayor of London town," who was knighted by King Henry V. This Sir Richard Whittington had once been a poor boy, and in those days it was very wonderful that he should have risen to such high station. It made everyone talk about him, and the tale grew in the telling.

At that very time there lived in a tiny village called Paston, in Norfolkshire, a poor farmer called Clement Paston. He too prospered, although he came of a family who for generations past had been peasant folk, tillers of the soil. Let us look backwards at these folk.

Under the old feudal system it had been impossible for the Pastons to improve their position. For then, as you have already learnt, the land was the king's, to be divided among the great nobles of his Court, who in their turn made grants to their followers. These landowners needed labourers to cultivate their land. So they set aside a certain number of acres which they split up into sections, like the allotments of our own time, and, instead of paying wages, they gave each labourer a small holding of land where he could grow corn and vegetables for his own benefit. In return, the labourer and his family worked so many days a week on their lord's estate, or "demesne,"¹ and at harvest time, or any other time when more work was wanted, day after day had to be given to the lord's service.

This meant that the labourer's own land was neglected. Moreover, he had to pay dues to his lord in the form of produce—corn, vegetables, fruit, cheese, eggs, and chickens—according to his means. The labourer's family was nearly always hungry; often their only food was coarse bread made from the corn they had grown and threshed and ground into flour for themselves, together with the soups and stews with which their vegetables supplied them. A man was lucky if he could buy a cow or pig or some chickens and turn them loose on the common, which was free or "common land" to all.

The worst result of the feudal system, however, was not simply poverty but serfdom. The labourer was a "serf" or "villein"; sometimes he was a "cottar." He was bound to the land and could not leave it without

Pronounced "de main," sometimes "demeen." This word became "domain."

his lord's consent. He was his lord's property, and entirely in the latter's power except that the lord was forbidden by law to do him bodily harm.

When wars broke out the peasant might be called on to serve in the national militia, with little or no armour. Sometimes he carried only a scytbe or knife fixed to the end of a pole, or else a bow and arrows. His lord was much better equipped, with heavy armour and a shield to protect him from head to foot; he had a long spear, or balberd, battle-axe, sword and dagger, and he rode on a great war-charger, which was also in armour, and could trample down the foot soldiers.

Thus you will understand that the lord's life was not in such danger as the poor man's. In fact, to the lord fighting was a kind of sport scarcely more bloodthirsty than other sports of the time. Sometimes the feudal lords grew restless and quarrelsome, and one lord might make a violent attack on his neighbour. This made life very difficult for people following peaceable pursuits. Fortunately, however, such disturbances were rarer in England than in France or Germany, the English kings being usually strong enough to maintain some kind of order amongst even the more turbulent of the nobles.

FEUDAL HORSEMAN AND
BOWMAN WEARING
ARMOUR.





TENANT PAYING RENT (From an old drawing)

Buying Freedom: How a Peasant Prospered.

This state of things could not be expected to last. During the three centuries which followed the Roman Conquest certain important changes in the feudal system were introduced. Landowners, in return for a fixed payment, agreed to release their tenants from service on the "demesne." This arrangement was called *commutation of service*, and the payment for it was in money. The landowner was thus able to hire labourers to work all their time on his land, while his tenants were free to look after their own land and live stock and improve their standing.

Just as the tenants commuted their labour services to the lord, so the lord was sometimes allowed to commute his military service to the King. Accordingly, we find money widely used as a means of payment, and the custom of *fixed rents* now began, though not throughout the whole country. This meant that the feudal system was passing, and that the Middle Ages were slowly coming to an end.

Buying Freedom: How a Peasant Prospered 13

Nowadays it is no uncommon thing for a poor boy to become rich and famous like Dick Whittington. In the fifteenth century, however, it was more difficult. We may imagine the Pastons steadily raising themselves from serfdom, with services being gradually "commuted," until Clement Paston had become a farmer with considerable property. He was rich enough to have his son William educated as a lawyer, although for an ordinary farmer's son this was unheard of. William in due course became a judge, and so upright was he that people called him "the Good Judge." At last he was knighted, and as Sir William Paston he brought up his son to be a gentleman, and found him a wife of gentle birth. The Paston family reared many lawyers, and, in the seventeenth century, one of their descendants was made Earl of Yarmouth.

No doubt there were other peasants who were able to enrich their families in this way.



MOONEYERS AT WORK (From an old print.)

War and the Break-up of Feudalism.

In the fifteenth century a civil war broke out amongst the quarrelsome nobles. Many of them wanted the Duke of York to be king, others were on the side of the reigning king, Henry VI, who was of the house of Lancaster. The struggle lasted for thirty years, and it was called the "Wars of the Roses," because the emblem of Lancaster was a red rose and the emblem of York a white rose.

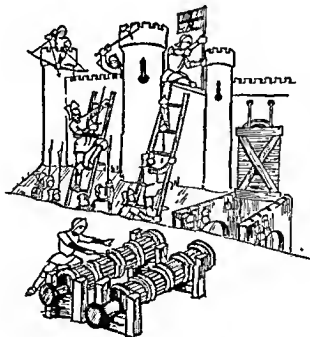
The towns people and the country folk generally took little part in this war. Doubtless, however, they were glad when peace came, for armies on the march had to be fed, and they did much damage. On the battle field at Bosworth in 1485, Henry Tudor was crowned King Henry VII, and his reign brought order and prosperity to the nation.

Now it had been the custom for each noble to keep a large number of armed servants, or "retainers," wearing the badge or suit of clothes which their lord provided as "livery," or uniform. They were a disorderly crew, including many men of a bad type, and they were ready to support their master in return for his protection against justice.

Henry VII saw that this power of the great nobles was dangerous to his own safety. He therefore enforced an Act, passed by Edward IV, forbidding them to keep retainers. Justice was to be done to rich and poor, and a court was set up for dealing chiefly with men of rank.

This was called the Court of the Star Chamber, because the ceiling of the Chamber was decorated with stars. Henry's method of punishment was usually a heavy fine, and by this means he grew rich at the expense of the nobles.

Perhaps you wonder why the nobles did not rebel against the King? One reason was that gunpowder had by this time been invented, and this came, practically speaking, into the King's sole possession. Bows and arrows, heavy plate-armour, massive castles were no protection against cannon and musketry fire, and, as the risks increased, men became less ready to resort to fighting.



THE FIRST CANNON. (From an old print.)

The Navy and Foreign Trade.

An island kingdom needs a navy for defence in time of war. At all times its prosperity depends upon its trade with other countries. For both these reasons Henry VII showed wisdom in the measures he took for improving the fleet. He had more ships built, and he encouraged his merchants to build ships for themselves by paying a sum, known as bounty, for every ship they built. These trading ships could be used for fighting.

For three centuries, until thirty years before the Battle of Bosworth, the province of Gascony, in the south west of France, had belonged to England, and during that time there had been a good trade in Gascony wine. When the French recaptured Gascony they refused to allow English ships near their coasts, and the wine was brought to England in French ships. Henry soon altered this state of things by the following law —

“It was called to remembrance of the great decrease and decay that hath been now of late time of the navy within this realm of England, and idleness of the mariners within the same, by which this noble realm within short process of time, shall not be of ability and power to defend itself whereas it is enacted that no person buy nor sell within this said realm, any manner of wines of the growing of the Duchy of Gascony, but such as shall be purchased and brought in an English, Irish, or Welshman's ship, and the mariners of the same English, Irish, or Welshmen for the more part.”¹

¹ 1483. 2. Statutes of the Realm p. 502. Adapted

Thus Henry earned the gratitude of the English traders

King Henry had two new ships built which were bigger than any ever seen before, and, in 1514, his son, Henry VIII., built a still larger ship called the *Great Harry*.

For Reading and Reference.

Merry England, or Nobles and
Serfs—*Ainsworth, W. H.*

In the Wars of the Roses—*Green,
E. Everett*

The Heir of Hascombe Hall—
Green, E. Everett.

Last of the Barons—*Lytton, Lord*
Black Arrow—*Stevenson, Robert*

Louis
Henry VI.—*Shakespeare.*

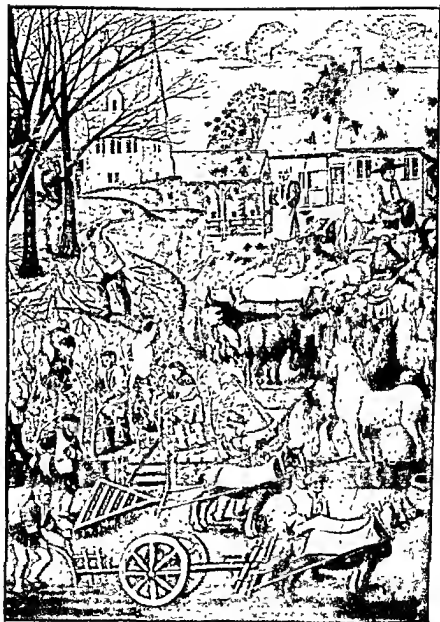


A WALLED SEAPORT IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY
(From an old MS)

Time-Chart.

A.D. 1485 to 1509.

YEAR.	ENGLISH HISTORY		GENERAL HISTORY
	Political.	Social and Industrial	
1485	Battle of Bosworth ends Wars of Roses, 1485 Henry VII, King, 1485 Court of Star Chamber set up, 1487.		Bartholomew Diaz sails round the Cape of Good Hope, 1486 (for Portugal)
1490			Columbus discovers America, 1492 (for Spain) Columbus's second voyage and discovery of Jamaica, 1493
1495		Enclosure of common lands for sheep-farming Distress of farm labourers Growth of wool industry Beginning of the navy Foundation of many colleges.	Cabot discovers Newfoundland (for England), 1497 Vasco da Gama's voyage to India (for Portugal), 1497-8 Columbus's third voyage and discovery of Trinidad, 1498 Columbus's fourth voyage and discovery of Central America, 1502- 1504
1500	Marriage of Princess Margaret to James IV of Scotland, 1502		
1505			
1509	Death of Henry VII.		



THE MANOR FARM YARD (1460).
From an old MS



GAINSBOROUGH OLD HALL IN LINCOLNSHIRE

A manor house built in the fourteenth century, rebuilt in the fifteenth century and later

LIFE IN TUDOR TIMES.

The Manor House.

During the fifteenth century, as we have seen, many farming people, like the Pastons, had the chance of freeing themselves from restrictions and of becoming rich. Similarly, in the towns, traders might become wealthy merchants. These rising families formed a new middle class between the nobles and the poor, and they soon became the backbone of the nation.

In the course of time they bought land and built beautiful manor-houses for themselves. Let us visit one of these manors, built before the battle of Bosworth.

Originally the house had a moat all round it, for the times were still troubled and dangerous. Like the castles of earlier days it has thick walls and a gate-house

to guard the entrance The strong doors are opened for us, and we pass into a large courtyard On three sides of it we see the barns and farm buildings and the stables.

Before us stands the house It is built of limestone, for limestone is plentiful here Had it been situated in a district where there was thick woodland, it would have been built mostly of timber In olden days, as a rule, people used the material which came first to hand

Entering through the stone porch we have on our right the winter parlour, and on our left the beautifully carved screens which stretch across one end of the hall Let us go first into the winter parlour It is a cosy room, with panelled walls and a great carved fire place The ceiling has heavy cross beams supporting the boards of the floor above The furniture is square and heavy There are handsome chests, used as seats, and stiff, carved chairs, such as one sees in the chapter house of an old cathedral These chairs are seats of honour, stools and benches are more commonly used Here the master of the house and his family took their meals when it was too chilly in the great draughty hall To day this room would be known as the dining room

Now let us cross over to the hall Up aloft is the minstrels' gallery, where the minstrels sat and made music when there was a banquet Sometimes the tables and benches would be cleared away, and the guests and retainers would dance to the music If the master of the house was rich enough to afford it he kept in his service a number of minstrels and also a jester, so that he could provide his own entertainment, for there were no theatres or concert halls yet Standing under the

minstrels' gallery we can look down the full length of the hall. It is a long, one-storeyed room, lit on each side by tall, stained-glass windows. Formerly the walls were bright with tapestry stretched along them, and the floors were strewn with rushes.

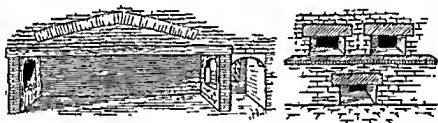
The timbered roof of the hall is high and sloping, like that of a church. At every point, and in almost every space, there is a quaint carving, for the craftsmen of those days delighted to make their work as beautiful as possible. They liked a joke, too. Among delicate tracery of flowers and leaves they would slyly carve the head of a favourite cat or dog. The strange figures known as "gargoyles," which you may find on the outside of cathedrals and churches, were often carved in fun. Sometimes the front of a carving will show an abbot's head, but if you look at it sideways the carving takes the shape of a cat with arched back.

At the other end of the hall the floor is raised, making a platform or dais. Here, in summer or on special occasions, the family had their meals. The dais is lit on each side by a bay window in which is a cosy seat. These windows are not as high as the others, because above each bay is a small bedroom.

Let us walk down the hall to the door at the back of the dais. The door opens upon a stone staircase which leads down to the cellar and up to the "solar"—a room so called because it caught the sunlight. Here the family "withdrew" after meals, and the master of the house took his nap. It was later known as the "withdrawing" room—a name now shortened to "drawing" room. The most beautiful feature of this room is its

oriel window. On the outside it juts beyond the level of the wall; on the inside it forms a little alcove, panelled at the bottom and lit by diamond panes of stained glass.

When we go down from the "solar" and back through the hall, we shall find another staircase which leads to the family bedrooms. Unlike most other houses, this one has several bedrooms. The finest of them is the one above the winter parlour. It is barely furnished, but the great four-poster bed is hung with silken tapestry,



OPEN FIRE PLACE AND OVENS IN KITCHEN OF CAINSBOROUGH OLD HALL.

and the fire-place is wide enough to hold a mighty fire. The inmates slept with their windows closed, for they thought the night air was harmful. They aired the bed with a warming-pan, which served as a hot-water bottle, and they wore night-caps to protect their heads from draughts. Besides all this, they had a fire in the bedroom at night and dressed by it in the morning.

Now let us visit the rest of the house. Behind the winter parlour are the pantry and buttery, with bedrooms overhead. At the back of the house we find a large inner court, round which are built the brew-houses, bake-houses, kitchens, and pantries.

Remember that this was the house of a rich gentleman, and it was an especially comfortable one. Most of the nobles who still lived in their castles often found them draughty, and not as pleasant as this manor-house.

The poorer people did not as yet live very comfortably, and nearly a hundred years after this time, William Harrison—a kindly old clergyman of Elizabeth's reign, who was Canon of Windsor in 1586—wrote of them :—

“Our fathers have lain full oft upon straw pallets,
 “on rough mats covered only with a sheet, and a
 “good round log under their heads instead of a
 “bolster or pillow. Pillows, said they, were thought
 “meet only for women. As for servants, if they
 “had any sheet above them, it was well, for seldom
 “had they any under their bodies, to keep them
 “from the pricking straws that ran oft through the
 “canvas of the pallet, and rased¹ their hardened
 “hides.”

Every Countryman His Own Tailor.

In the fifteenth century you would find in the towns craftsmen who gave all their time to the making of one kind of article for sale. With the money they got for it they could buy according to their needs from their neighbours of a different trade.

In the country, however, most families were self-supporting—that is to say, they grew all the food and raw material they wanted, and they made all their own

¹ rased—bruised

clothes. If they wore fine linen, it was spun and woven from their own flax plants. If they wore woollen garments—and, indeed, most people did so—their own sheep provided the necessary wool.

The sheep was, in fact, reared for its wool and not for its flesh, and there is a great contrast between the round plump sheep which is reared to day and the scraggy creature of the fifteenth century. A writer who lived in olden times tells us that the old English sheep had a

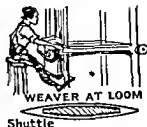
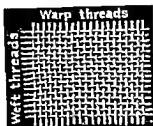
“frame large and loose, his bones heavy, his legs long and thick, his chin, as well as his rump, as sharp as a hatchet, his skin rattling on his ribs like a skeleton covered with parchment.”

But his wool was long and trailing.

After the fleece had been sheared, it was washed—usually in a stream. It was then dyed and hung to dry. The women and children of the household pulled it into fluff, afterwards they took it, bit by bit, and teased it out lengthways. Nowadays, this work is known as “carding,” and is done more quickly by drawing the wool between two flat wire brushes.

The carded wool had to be spun into thread. It was tied to a distaff, which was either a long stick, fixed up right on a stand, or a shorter stick which could be tucked under the arm. Bit by bit the wool was pulled out, twisted into a thread, and wound on to a spindle. A hundred years later people began to use the spinning wheel, which went more quickly.

Up to this point almost all the work was done by the women folk. Even noble ladies spun their own wool.



for clothes and blankets, and linen for underwear and napery. A young girl was always busy with her spinning to make table-linen and bed-clothes for the house of her future husband. This is why we still call an unmarried lady a spinster, although she no longer spins.

Weaving, which is similar to darning on a large scale, was usually done by men. All girls, and many boys, will know how a stocking is darned. The part of the stocking near the hole is stretched tightly over the hand. With a needle the woollen thread is drawn across the hole from side to side, until the space is covered closely with threads. In weaving, this first layer of threads is called the "warp." Then the wool is threaded crosswise through the first layer, under one thread and over the next, until the hole is filled. This second layer of threads is called the "weft."

Weaving has to be done on a machine called a "loom." The fifteenth century loom looked like the skeleton of a big box. The threads of the warp were first stretched from side to side between the rollers. To darn across these threads with a needle would be slow and difficult. The wool was therefore wound on a "bobbín," and this was put into a little case called a shuttle. But it would still be difficult to thread the shuttle under and over the

threads of the warp To make this easy, these threads were passed through loops or "headles, which, when worked by treadles underneath, raised one set of threads and pressed down the others The shuttle could then be passed through easily By a movement of the treadles, the threads which were raised the last time would be pressed down and the others raised The shuttle was passed through again Thus the huge "darn" was made At the end of the warp threads there was a kind of comb which came down upon the work and pressed the weft threads close together

When the cloth was finished, it was made fluffy by stroking it with teasels These are the hooked fruits of a plant something like a thistle The hooks raised the hairs on the cloth, but did not tear it No machine can do this work, and teasels fixed in a frame are used to this day

How the Sheep Drove Men from Home.

(With Extract from SIR THOMAS MORE)

Although so much of the wool of the great gaunt sheep was used by every family, there was yet much of it that could be sold, and, from very early times, ships laden with English wool sailed out of the port of London to Flanders There English wool was much prized and was woven into beautiful cloths by the skilled Flemish weavers

As time went on, more and more wool was needed by the Flemings, and although English landowners kept greater

numbers of sheep, they could not send the Flemings as much as they wanted. Such a high price was paid for wool that many landowners turned their ploughed lands into pasture land for sheep raising. It was more profitable than cultivating the land and paying labourers. Thus, where formerly many labourers were employed, only one or two shepherds were needed. Poor people were driven away to starve, or beg, or rob, and their cottages fell into ruins.

In the fifteenth century there were many revolts against the practice of turning peasant labourers from the land to make room for sheep. One of the first things that Henry VII did when he became King was to pass a law against "the decay of houses of husbandry," but the law was not very well kept. The Justices of the Peace, who should have punished all who disobeyed, were themselves often the greatest offenders.

Many thoughtful men were indignant at the state of affairs, and Sir Thomas More a wise and kindly gentleman of whom you will read in a later chapter, protested in these words —

"Your sheep that were wont to be so meek and
 "tame, and so small eaters now, as I hear say, be
 ' become so great devourers and so wild, that they
 "eat up and swallow down the very men themselves
 "They consume, destroy and devour whole fields,
 "houses and cities. For look in what parts of the
 "realm doth grow the finest, and therefore dearest
 "wool. There noblemen and gentlemen, yea, and
 "certain abbots, not contenting themselves with
 "the yearly revenues and profits, leave no ground

"for tillage They inclose all into pastures They
"throw down houses, they pluck down towns, and
"leave nothing standing, but only the church to be
"made a sheep house

"They inclose many acres of ground together
"within one pale or hedge The husbandmen be
"thrust out of their own They must needs depart
"away, poor wretched souls, men, women, husbands,
"wives, fatherless children, widows, woeful mothers
"with their young babes, and their whole household
"Away they trudge, I say, out of their known and
"accustomed houses, finding no place to rest in

"For one shepherd or herdman is enough to
"eat up that ground with cattle, whereof for
"husbandry many hands were needed

"And this is the cause why victuals be now in
"many places dearer

"Yea, besides this, the price of wool is so risen
"that poor folks, who were wont to work it, and
"make cloth thereof, be now able to buy none at all"



SHEPHERDS IN THE MIDDLE AGES.
(From fifteenth century drawing.)



BEGGARS (From an old drawing)

Further Hardships of the Poor.

The poor had other grievances too. Many of the silver coins in use were "clipped", that is to say, dishonest people cut a little silver from the edge of the coin so that it was no longer worth the value stamped on it. The clippings were melted down to make new coins of less than the proper weight. Some of the false coiners also used too little of the real silver and too much of the "alloy" or baser metal. The result was that tradesmen charged high prices so that they would be sure of getting the value of what they sold. A later reason for high prices was that more and more silver was brought from the New World, so that it became less valuable and would not buy so much.

To people whose wages were fixed this was very hard. There were indeed trade "guilds," or unions of craftsmen, in the towns, and formerly these guilds had decided what was a "fair wage." Now they had lost the power. Men had to work at the old wages and buy at the new

prices. Many of them gave up the struggle and joined the bands of beggars.

Until the days of Henry VIII the clergy looked after the homeless, and poor folk were sure of a meal and a night's lodging at the monasteries. But we shall soon see that even this help was to fail them.

It is not surprising that the country swarmed with beggars, and worse, with robbers who made the roads, and even the streets, unsafe.

The Growth of a Great Industry.

Many of the out of work country people could spin and weave as well as any townsman who had been apprenticed for several years to the craft. When they lost their means of living on the land they came to the towns to look for work, but found themselves hindered by the trade guilds. They did not lose heart, however. They said something like this —

"Very well! You will not let us work with you in the town. We shall work without you outside the town. But work we will."

So it came about that, in the second half of the fifteenth century, many spinners and weavers were at work outside the principal towns. Because they sold their goods at prices lower than those fixed by the guild, these new workers did a great trade.

Sometimes a well-to-do trader would buy the raw wool, and pay for every process of the cloth making. The finished material was his to sell, and he made a good profit on it. This "clothier" was like the

manufacturer of to day, except that he had no factories, the workers were independent men undertaking his orders

Different kinds of cloth were made in different districts. The men who lived round Bristol made striped and coloured cloths, those round Coventry made frieze—a coarse cloth, fluffy on one side, and those round Kendal made Cogware, which is a rough cloth something like frieze but made of the poorest wool.



TAILORING

SELLING AN ARTICLE.

(Note frame with weight for stretching the cloth marked X.) (From old pen. la.)

Cloth making became so important that Englishmen had more cloth than they wanted, and instead of sending English wool to Flanders merchants began to send English cloth. The Flemish cloth makers were naturally angry that English cloth should be sold instead of their own, and as early as 1434 English cloth was forbidden in Flanders.

England replied to this by refusing to let the Flemings have wool. As England was their chief source of supply, Flemish trade went down for lack of

raw material To help English cloth makers yet more, a law was passed which ordered that no foreign woollen cloths should be brought into England to compete with home manufacture It also fixed a high tax on wool sent out of England and a low one on cloth, so that it was more profitable to support English cloth making

In 1496 Henry VII made a treaty by which English cloth was once more to be sold in Flanders England had now captured the Flemish trade

So great did the demand for English cloth become that early in the sixteenth century we hear of a man named John Winchcombe, who is supposed to have had a hundred looms in his own house He was one of the first clothiers to own a factory, and became famous for the making of Kersey—a narrow ribbed cloth Later, in 1555, because the weavers in factories complained of their treatment, Parliament passed the "Weavers' Act Under this law a "clothier" living in a town was not allowed to have more than one loom in his house Country weavers were allowed to have two looms, but not more than two apprentices

So cloth making remained a domestic industry, and we do not hear of "factories" again for many years



MAP SHOWING S.E. ENGLAND AND FLANDERS

THE AGE OF DISCOVERY.

Wanted—A New Way to the East.

To those who lived at the end of the fifteenth century it seemed that the world was becoming a larger place. New lands were discovered of which people in the Middle Ages had never dreamed.

The East had always been looked upon as the home of untold wealth, but for several centuries trade had been hindered by the invasions of the Turks, in those days a very savage race. They captured Jerusalem in 1077. Christians from all over Europe fought against them in the Crusades, but they spread round the eastern and southern coasts of the Mediterranean. In 1453 they took Constantinople, and thus blocked the land route to the East. Men began to wonder whether they could find a new way of reaching the East, by sea, so as to avoid them.

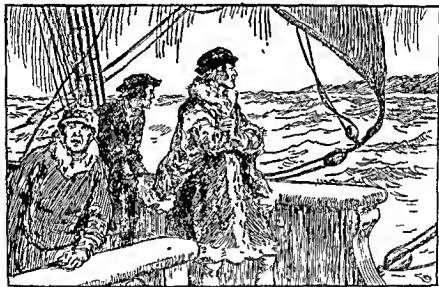
Sailors from Portugal had for many years been trying to find a way to the East round Africa. At last, in 1486, a Portuguese named Bartholomew Diaz sailed so far south that, when caught in a storm, he was blown round the Cape which he therefore named the Cape of Storms. He turned north, and, if you look at your map of South Africa, you will see the coast that he found between what we now call the Cape of Good Hope and Port Elizabeth. It was the King of Portugal who renamed the Cape when Diaz came back and told him that there was an easterly way by sea round the south of Africa.

tool, and then berries and sugar-cane and logwood. At last, after nine weeks' sailing, in the early morning, men heard the cry, "Land ahead!" and soon the boats were lowered and they were rowing for the shore. The natives came to meet them and stood in wonder, whilst Columbus, with drawn sword in his right hand and the banner of Spain in his left, offered thanksgiving and took possession of the land in the name of Spain.

Columbus called this land the Indies, because he thought he had reached part of India. After six months he returned, with a cargo of gold and cotton and some of the natives, together with specimens of their weapons, the plants of the land, and some parrots.

Next year Columbus made a second voyage westward and discovered Jamaica. On a third voyage, in 1498, he found South America, and sailed along the northern coast. There he saw a strange island, with three hill-tops rising dark against the sky. This he called Trinidad, in honour of the Trinity, and it keeps that name to this day. In the course of a fourth voyage he discovered Central America.

discovery in a more northerly direction. This was John Cabot, a Venetian, who had settled in Bristol. Cabot had once been to Mecca, the great market of the East, in Arabia. There he saw spices and perfumes, silks and precious stones, and, when he asked where they came from, a merchant told him they were brought by caravan



NORTH AMERICA FIRST SIGHTED FROM AN ENGLISH SHIP UNDER CABOT, 1497

from north-eastern Asia. Cabot, believing like Columbus that the world was round, decided that he too would sail west to seek Asia, and bring back these precious things in his ship.

Leaving Bristol with his three sons, Cabot sailed north-west, reached the northern point of what we now call Cape Breton Island and coasted the southern shores of Newfoundland. He thought he had come to Asia. On the way home his ship got into "schools"

of cod, and so plentiful were the fish that the sailors caught them easily by lowering baskets into the water.

In later voyages Cabot reached Baffin Island, and coasted Labrador, Nova Scotia, and New England.

In 1497 Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese sailor, rounded the Cape of Good Hope in the endeavour to discover an eastern route to India. Sailing up the East African coast as far as Malindi, he crossed the Arabian Sea, and reached Calicut in 1498. The Mohammedan merchants there were jealous of a new rival in trade, and made mischief between the Hindoos and the Portuguese, and as a result the explorers were driven away. But Vasco da Gama had laid the foundations of a great trade between Portugal and India.

There was another adventurer who, as he tells us in his own letters, sailed for the New World in 1497. This was Amerigo Vespucci. He claimed to have been the first to sight the North American Continent, and it was therefore named after him. It is exceedingly doubtful, however, if he made a voyage in that year, and it is now conceded that John Cabot was the first to reach the Continent in 1497.

One of the greatest of all explorers was another Portuguese, named Ferdinand Magellan, who became famous when Henry VIII. was King of England. In 1519 he left Portugal for South America and sailed down the coast. He passed between the mainland of South America and the island to the south of it, and the strait has ever since been known by his name. The island he named Tierra del Fuego—the Land of Fire—because the natives, owing to the cold, had lit bonfires

along its coasts. From there he sailed straight across the ocean to the Ladrões, or Robber Islands, and the Philippine Islands, later called after King Philip of Spain. The rest of the voyage lay across the Indian Ocean to South Africa, and then north to Portugal. Magellan himself never saw home again, for, in a fight with some natives in the Philippines, he was killed by a poisoned arrow. "Thus perished our guide, our light, and our support," wrote one of his men, telling the story of the voyage afterwards. Nevertheless, his ship returned safely in 1522, the first to sail right round the world.

For Reading and Reference.

History of the Life and Voyages
of Christopher Columbus—
Irving, Washington

The Voyages and Discoveries of
the Companions of Columbus
—*Irving, Washington*

"Columbus"—*Tennyson, Lord*

The First Voyage Round the
World by Magellan—*Stanley,
Lord*

Voyages of Elizabethan Seamen—
Payne and Beazley

Great Explorers—*Parman, W.*



ROUTES OF THE FIRST EXPLORERS.

Time-Chart.

A.D. 1509 to 1547.

YEAR.	ENGLISH HISTORY		GENERAL HISTORY
	Political	Social and Industrial	
1509	Henry VIII, King		
1510			
	Wolsey, Archbishop of York, 1514	St Paul's School founded by Colet, 1512	Battle of the Spurs, 1513 (Henry defeats French.) Battle of Flodden, 1513 (English defeat Scots)
1515	Wolsey, Chancellor and Papal Legate	More's "Utopia," 1516	Death of James IV. of Scotland
1520			Erasmus's Greek Testament, 1516
1525			Magellan sails on voyage round the world, 1519
1530	Death of Wolsey, 1530 Henry VIII, Supreme Head of the Church in England, 1531 Act of Annates, seizing money payable to Rome, 1534 Act of Supremacy, 1534	English translation of Bible (a) by Tyndale (b) by Coverdale	Luther's German translation of New Testament, 1522.
1535	Execution of More and Fisher, 1535 Pilgrimage of Grace, 1536-1537.	Closing of smaller monasteries, 1536	Death of Erasmus, 1535
	Act of Six Articles, 1539	Closing of greater monasteries, 1537-40	War with Scotland, 1542
1540	Fall of Thomas Cromwell, 1510	Litany translated into English by Cranmer, 1544	Battle of Solway Moss
1545			Birth of Mary Stewart.
1547	Death of Henry VIII		Death of James V, 1542

• THE RE-BIRTH OF LEARNING

Our Debt to the Monks:

While brave explorers were venturing across the ocean new prospects were also opening out at home

In the Middle Ages books had to be printed by hand, and so they were rare and very precious. In the monasteries those of the monks who were learned and skilful enough spent much of their time in copying such books, and sometimes a monk would write down the history of his own times. They printed very carefully, and liked to have their capital letters artistically shaped and beautifully coloured. Sometimes their pictures were very gay and amusing, for they let their fancy run free. They made patterns round the sides of the page, with flowers and birds and animals, saints and angels, and scenes from everyday life. This lovely work was done with pens dipped into coloured paints and enamels, and often tinfoil was used.

Thus the good monks taught men the love of learning and the love of art, and we owe a great deal to them. Every monastery had its library, however small. Sometimes the monks kept school, but it was only rich men who could afford to let their sons study instead of work on the land.

To learn was not as easy then as it is now, for nearly all the books were written in Latin. This was the language used in the services of the Church, and it is

still used in Roman Catholic churches. Scholars used to talk together in Latin, even at meal times.

When as you have read, the Turks invaded Europe from the east and captured Constantinople many Greek teachers who lived there fled westwards. Fortunately for us they carried with them the works of great writers who had lived before Christ, and wherever they went they taught the language and the learning of Greece.



' GAME AND PLAY OF THE
CHESSSE

(Illustration from one of the earliest
printed books.)

Christian men who became their pupils were surprised to find that there were teachers who knew more than most of the monks. Many began to learn Greek in order to read the great writers for themselves. So joyful were they at finding this learning of the ancient world that they said it was like being born again into a new and wonderful life. This gave us the name for these years—the Renaissance or Rebirth.

During this century, also, the printing press was invented, and printing 'houses' were set up in Germany and Holland. William Caxton was the earliest printer in England, bringing his press from Holland to Westminster in 1476. Although for a long time there were few printers, it was now possible to print hundreds of copies of a book. More and more men were enabled to read, and the "new learning" spread rapidly, but books were still very expensive.

Erasmus and Other Great Scholars.

The greatest scholar of this new ago was a Dutch priest called Erasmus. He was a broad-minded man who felt that people ought not to quarrel over the forms of worship. He was brave enough to speak his mind, even concerning kings and churchmen. He knew their weaknesses, and in a book which he wrote in mock praise of Folly, he made fun of them all in the hope that they would amend their ways.

The greatest service Erasmus rendered to his ago was the bringing out of the New Testament in Greek, the language in which it had first been written, with a translation into Latin. He did this so that men might learn not only to love Greek but also better to understand their religion. At that time the Bible could only be read in Latin, and most people had to depend entirely on their priests for it. Erasmus would have liked to translate it into Dutch and English and other languages for the benefit of everyone. Thinking of the Gospels and Epistles especially, he wrote :

"I long for the day when the husbandman shall
 "sow portions of them to himself as he follows the
 "plough, when the weaver shall hum them to the
 "tune of his shuttle, when the traveller shall while
 "away with their stories the weariness of his
 "journey."

Not many years were to pass before this wish—as far

as England was concerned—began to be realised. During the first half of the sixteenth century two scholars, William Tyndale and Miles Coverdale, issued English translations of the Scriptures.

Erasmus met the most learned Englishmen of the time, among whom were John Colet, Dean of St Pauls, Bishop Fox, of Winchester, Bishop Fisher, of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More, in whose house at Chelsea he stayed.

Dean Colet was a famous Greek scholar, and at his own expense he re-founded St Pauls School in London in 1512. He gave a great deal of land for the upkeep of the school, and arranged for the "Company of Mercers" to manage its affairs. Churchmen had always managed schools before, but Dean Colet appointed business men instead. He was so anxious that the children should learn as much as possible in their years at school that he made it a rule for them to have no holidays.

Bishop Fox, of Winchester, also helped to make Greek more widely known, while Bishop Fisher, of Rochester, not only favoured the teaching of Greek and Hebrew, but openly reprimanded those churchmen who, he thought, were too fond of riches.

With the new learning life became more interesting. Whenever scholars met they talked about the wonderful Greek writings that had been so long out of the way and were now brought to light. Now colleges were founded at Oxford and Cambridge, and the universities were crowded with students—rich and poor—who gathered round great teachers.

Sir Thomas More.

Before we pass on to the exciting events of Henry VIII.'s reign, we must give a little time to Sir Thomas More, than whom there could be no more kind and honest man.

Erasmus, who was one of his greatest friends, says that "No one can be more ready to do a kindness, no one less exacting in looking for its repayment."

When Henry VII. died, More, who was then about thirty, became a great favourite with the young King Henry VIII., but he was never so happy as with his wife and children, petting the animals he kept and walking in his garden. It was said that "all the birds in Chelsea came to him to be fed."

More's most famous work is the book "Utopia"—a word meaning "Nowhere"—which describes an imaginary island. The great city in Utopia is clean and handsome, with wide streets and a garden for every house. No man works for more than nine hours a day, and no one is idle; each does his fair share of work in return for a fair wage.

The most wonderful thoughts in the "Utopia" were so far in advance of the author's time that even in our own century they are only just beginning to gain ground. Although he himself strongly supported the Church, Sir Thomas believed that everyone should be free to have his own opinions on religious questions. He also declared that war should be avoided.

These opinions did not suit the young King, but it was some time before he quarrelled with his friend.

In the end, however, More provoked the King's anger. For Henry, in order to overthrow the power of the Pope, declared that he himself was Supreme Head of the Church in England. More would not admit the King's authority in religion, and, in 1535, he was condemned to be executed. After his death his dear daughter, Margaret Roper, went to the Tower and bribed the keepers to let her have his head, and when, years afterwards, she died, it was buried with her.

For Reading and Reference.

Springtime—*Bailey*

Romola—*Eliot, George*

The Cloister and the Hearth—

Reade, Charles

The Household of Sir Thomas
More—*Manning*



SIR THOMAS MORE.



DEAN COLET

(From portraits by Holbein.)

THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND.

King Harry and the Cardinal.

We must now return to the beginning of Henry VIII's reign in 1509

Henry VII had been a wise ruler, but he was so cold and sedate that his people never really loved him. Now they were to be ruled by a hearty, rollicking boy of eighteen, who came to be known as "Bluff King Hal."

This gay young King was so much occupied with his hunting and games, his music and his prayers, that he left most of the work of State to be done by others. Fortunately he had a clever minister, Cardinal Wolsey. Wolsey was the son of a wealthy merchant of Ipswich, and he very rapidly rose in power. He did not misuse his power, however, he was open handed towards the poor and a great friend to learning. At Oxford, where he himself had been educated he built and founded Cardinal College, which is now called Christ Church. He also built a great palace for himself at Hampton Court.

This is what the Venetian ambassador said of Wolsey

"The Cardinal of York rules both the King and the entire kingdom. On my first arrival in England he used to say to me '*His Majesty* will do so and so.' Later, by degrees he forgot himself, and began to say '*We* shall do so and so.' At present he has reached such a pitch that he says '*I* shall do so and so.'"

Conflict with Rome.

It is hard for people living nowadays to realise how important the king was in the days of the Tudors. He had the work of State and the work of justice in his own hands. Everything depended on him and on his chosen advisers.

Henry VII knew this, and ruled firmly and effectively. If he had not left a son equally strong to carry on his work, the nobles would probably have risen again and been as lawless as ever, but the rule of Henry VIII and Wolsey was just as firm as that of Henry VII. The Tudors really loved England, and they knew what a misfortune it would be for their country if there was no strong ruler.

Henry VIII had married Katherine of Aragon, a Spanish princess who was the widow of his brother Arthur. He had one daughter, Mary, but no son to rule after him. It troubled him that there should be no one but a girl to carry on his work. He asked the Pope to declare that he was not lawfully married to Queen Katherine so that he might marry someone else. This the Pope was unwilling to do, but after delaying as long as he could, he consented to send one of the Cardinals, who, with Wolsey, was to try the case. Even then matters moved very slowly, for the Pope did not want to grant the King's wish, and yet he was unwilling to offend him. English people took sides, although very few went openly against the King. Some said he had in mind the future of his country. Others thought that he had grown tired of the Queen and wanted to marry a pretty young lady of the court named Anne Boleyn. We

Most people thought of the King as a careless and kindly young man. Sir Thomas More, however, read the King's character differently. William Roper, More's son in law, tells us about it

"I, rejoicing, told Sir Thomas More how happy he
 "was whom the King had so familiarly entertained,
 "as I had never seen him do to any before, except
 "Cardinal Wolsey, whom I saw his Grace once walk
 "with arm in arm

"'I thank our Lord, son, quoth he, 'I find his
 "Grace my very good lord, indeed, and I do believe
 "he doth as singularly favour me as any subject
 "within this realm. But I may tell thee, I have
 "no cause to be proud thereof. For if my head
 "would win him a castle in France it should not
 "fail to go' ¹

One day Thomas Cromwell, who succeeded Wolsey as minister, came to see him. This is the wise advice that More gave him

"'Mr Cromwell, quoth he, 'you are now entered
 "into the service of a most noble, wise, and liberal
 "prince, if you follow my poor advice, you shall, in
 "counsel giving unto his Grace, ever tell him what
 "he *ought* to do, but never tell him what he is *able*
 "to do. For if the lion knew his own strength, hard
 "were it for any man to rule him' ¹

We shall see in the next chapters whether Sir Thomas was right or not

¹ Adapted from the *Life of More*, by William Roper. Written about 1535

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shall never really know the truth The Queen refused to agree to the King's desire, and after pleading with him she left the Court, never to return

The case dragged on, and Wolsey could not persuade the Pope to give the King his freedom to marry again At last the King grew angry, blamed Wolsey, and sent him away in disgrace, to die very soon afterwards According to Shakespeare, who wrote the story of the reign in his play "Henry VIII," these were the last words of the fallen Cardinal

"Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my King, He would not in mine age
Have left me naked to mine enemies'

Although Henry was by nature gay and jovial, he now made it clear that neither Church nor State could turn him from his own way

Thomas Cromwell, who had been a lawyer, and owed his rise in office to Wolsey's favour, now became the King's adviser, and he it was who showed the King how to make himself supreme

From early times much money had gone from England every year to the Pope Henry VIII made Parliament pass a law, called the Act of Annates, to stop this unless the Pope gave judgment in his favour As the Pope still held out, he took a further step—he made himself Head of the Church in England Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher were among the few who refused to take the oath of obedience to him, and they were beheaded in 1535 For the same offence the monks of the Charterhouse were all either hanged or left to die in chains.

Henry now regarded himself as free to do as he liked. He cancelled the marriage with Katherine and took Anne Boleyn as his wife.

Soon afterwards Katherine died.

The union of Anne Boleyn and the King was



THE PUNISHMENT OF THE CHATTERHOUSE MONKS.

(From a print dated 1555, British Museum.)

to be short-lived. They had a daughter, the princess Elizabeth, but no son, and the King soon grew tired of his wife. As a means of getting rid of her he had her executed and married Jane Seymour, one of her ladies-in-waiting. This lady gave him the son he had so long desired, the future Edward VI. She herself died in the midst of the rejoicings. Later the King married a fourth wife whom he divorced, a fifth whom he executed, and a sixth who was fortunate enough to survive him.

We must now turn from the King's personal affairs to trace his dealings with the nation. The laughing, careless young King had become "a lion" who "knew his own strength," and all men feared him.

The Closing of the Monasteries.

The money which had belonged to the clergy now went into the King's purse. Not content with this, Henry took possession of monastic property.

First he sent officials to inspect the smaller monasteries and convents. They made a list of the property, money, plate, and everything of value. The monks and nuns were told that they must join the larger religious houses, and their riches were brought to the King. The beautiful chalices of gold and silver were melted down for the King's treasury. The buildings and lands were sold or given to the King's favourites. Even the bells and the lead of the roofs were melted down to be sold for the King's benefit.

Englishmen in the North thought that the King meant to change their religion. There was a great rising called the *Pilgrimage of Grace*. Some of the abbots took part in it, and they were cruelly put to death. Afterwards the greater monasteries also were broken up. At Glastonbury, the good abbot, who was eighty years old, was dragged on a hurdle to the gallows and hanged there.

Although Henry wanted to get the power and wealth of the Church into his own hands, he did not mean to alter the old religion. Not long previously a friar in Germany, named Martin Luther, had left the Church and begun to preach doctrines opposed to the accepted beliefs. Henry wrote a book attacking Luther for this, and the Pope gave him the title



VILLAGE SCENE IN TUDOR TIMES

G. to Dove



HENRY VIII

(From portrait by Holbein)



CARDINAL WOLSEY

(From portrait attributed to Holbein)

"Defender of the Faith, which is still to be seen on our coins in Latin (shortened to 'Fid Def')

Even after his quarrel with the Pope, Henry made no changes in religion. He made this clear by the Act of Six Articles in 1539, but for those who wanted to read for themselves, he allowed a copy of the Bible, translated into English, to be placed in every church, chained to the lectern or reading desk.

Victory for the Reformers.

In the Middle Ages there had been the one Christian religion, with Rome as its centre and the Pope as its Head. The Church of Rome is called "Catholic" because the word means "world wide". Few men disagreed with the teachings of this Church in those days. A man who did not do so was called a heretic, and if he did not give way and confess himself to be wrong he was punished.

As we read in the previous chapter, Martin Luther could not bring himself to believe in all the teachings and methods of the Catholic Church, and he began to preach that certain changes should be made. Another preacher, a French Swiss named John Calvin, taught as Luther did. The followers of these two men were called "Protestants, or 'Reformers,' because they protested against the old ways and wanted the Church to be "reformed," or formed anew.

When Henry VIII died, his little son, Edward VI, was only nine years of age. Until he grew up someone had to rule in his place, and this task fell to his mother's brother, Edward Seymour, afterwards Duke of Somerset.

At first Somerset's attention was given to Scotland. He tried to arrange that the baby queen, Mary Stewart, should marry the boy King of England, so that Scots and English might live together in peace. The little Scots queen, however, was sent to France, where she afterwards married the Dauphin, as the eldest son of the French king was called.

Somerset then turned to affairs in England, where he found that the people were unsettled as regards religion. Followers of Luther and Calvin were spreading the new teachings, and Somerset decided that, for the sake of peace, people must all worship in one way. In 1549 he ordered through Parliament that everyone should go to church and use the book of Common Prayer, which had just been prepared. This book was not satisfactory to many people, and there were revolts against it. Soon Somerset was overthrown, and Warwick, afterwards Duke of Northumberland, came into power. Northumberland was afraid of Somerset, and, in 1552, he had him put to death. While Northumberland was in power the Calvinists had their own way, and a second Prayer Book was brought out, which was more strongly Protestant than the first.

When King Edward died in 1553—only sixteen years old—many people looked forward to the reign of his sister Mary, who, they felt, would bring back the old religion. But Northumberland had other plans. He persuaded the dying King to leave the kingdom to his cousin, Lady Jane Grey, a beautiful young girl no older than himself, of very sweet character and great accomplishments. The boy Edward gladly agreed to this, preferring Lady

Time-Chart.

A.D. 1547 to 1558.

YEAR.	ENGLISH HISTORY		GENERAL HISTORY
	Political	Social and Industrial	
1547	Edward VI, King Somerset, Protector		George Wishart and Cardinal Beaton, 1546 Battle of Pinkie, 1547 (Somerset defeats Scots)
1550	Fall of Somerset Northumberland in power, 1549, Death of Edward VI, 1553 Lady Jane proclaimed Queen	First Prayer Book, 1549 Second Prayer Book, 1552 (At this time Grammar schools and St Bartholomew's Hospital and St Thomas's Hospital re-endowed)	
1553	Mary becomes Queen Wyatt's Rebellion, 1554	Reconciliation with the Church of Rome, 1554	Willoughby and Chancellor set sail for N E Passage, 1553
1555	Martyrdom of Hooper, Ridley, Latimer, and Cranmer, 1555 56		
1558	Death of Mary, 1558	Persecution of Protestants, 1555 8	"Lords of Congre- gation" form league of Protestant nobles in Scotland, 1557. War with France, 1557. Loss of Calais, 1558

Jane to his two half-sisters. Northumberland then married her to his own son, Lord Guildford Dudley, and thus thought that he had made sure of keeping the power in his own hands.

Lady Jane wept when she heard that she was to be Queen. She was never crowned, however; the people would not allow such injustice to "the lady Mary." Northumberland was overthrown and executed in 1553, and, in the following year, Lady Jane Grey and her husband were executed too.

The Queen who loved Spain.

England was prepared to be loyal to Queen Mary. It was felt that she had been badly treated. At the beginning of her reign she married her cousin, Philip II. of Spain. Now, Englishmen disliked Spaniards, and did not want to see this country overruled by them. They feared, too, that Philip, who was ruler of Austria, the Netherlands and Naples, as well as Spain, would look upon England as just a small corner of his own dominions. The thought of it hurt their pride, and there was a rebellion which very nearly succeeded. The Queen, you remember, was herself half-Spanish by birth, and Spaniards were whole-heartedly in favour of Roman Catholicism. Naturally, Mary wanted to make England as completely Roman Catholic as it had been before her father's quarrel with the Pope.

Now we shall see how Henry VIII.'s work made this almost impossible. In the first place, the lands seized from the Church, and property given by her father to

private persons, would have to be restored, and the present owners would not consent to this. Moreover, many people (including churchmen) now strongly believed in the new religion.

Accordingly Mary set out—in the love she had for the old faith—to force the people to be Roman Catholics again. Many Protestants were tried for heresy and burnt at the stake. Among them were Bishops Hooper, Ridley, and Latimer, who suffered martyrdom for the new religion in 1555. The next year Archbishop Cranmer, who had had a great deal to do with the composing of Edward VI.'s Prayer Books, was burnt also. In the same way many lesser-known people gave their lives for their religion.

Although these burnings were meant to destroy the new religion, actually the old faith suffered the more by them. As Latimer said to Ridley at the stake: "We shall this day light such a candle by God's grace in England as I trust shall never be put out."

Not only did men turn against the Church of Rome, but they hated Spain more and more. They blamed Philip of Spain for the cruel deaths of Protestant Englishmen. The fear of Spain hung over England for more than thirty years. We shall see how at last the Spanish strength was shattered when, in the days of Queen Elizabeth, that country declared war on England.

The failure of Mary's plans was a great grief to her. Moreover, her own life was full of trouble. She was constantly in ill-health. The marriage of which she had been so proud proved a failure. Her husband appeared to care little for her, and though she longed

for a son her hope was disappointed. At the end of her reign came a last blow: the town of Calais, the last of the English possessions in France, was lost. "When I am dead, you shall find Calais written on my heart," the Queen said. She died very soon afterwards.

The Middle Way.

After Mary's death in 1558, her half-sister Elizabeth became Queen. Elizabeth was outwardly a Protestant, but she was too wise to offend the Roman Catholics if she could avoid it. She took the "Middle Way." Only those who held office in the government were forced to take the oath of obedience to her as Supreme Governor of the Church. They were not obliged to go to church as they had been in Edward VI's day and under Queen Mary, but if they stayed away they had to pay a fine of a shilling, which was worth a great deal more than it is to-day. Until 1570 a Roman Catholic gentleman who wished to have Mass said in his own home, could do so on payment of a sum of twenty shillings each month.

It was now thirty years since Henry's quarrel with the Pope, and England had become a Protestant country. The Church of England was firmly settled, and it gave the country a tolerant religion, uniting much that was Catholic with much that was Protestant. Nevertheless, after 1570, feeling against the Catholics was such that to harbour a priest or be present at Mass was regarded as treason.

It was not only with the Roman Catholics, however,

that there were religious differences; among Protestants themselves opinions varied.

In the earliest days of the Reformation Protestants had felt themselves united against the old religion. But by the reign of Edward VI difficulties arose. Some Protestants believed in the rule of the Church by bishops. Others preferred rule by a council of "elders," or "presbyters," who were church members but not clergy.

Those who disliked bishops were at first called Brownists, after Robert Browne, their leader. Later they were nicknamed "Puritans," because of their zeal to purify the Church. They were cruelly treated by Elizabeth and many of them fled to Holland.

The Puritans were at first members of the Church of England. They wanted a plain and simple worship, and they liked their ministers to preach original sermons instead of reading from the "Book of Homilies." Later, as we shall see, the Puritans gained such power that for a time they became the rulers of England.

For Reading and Reference.

Lancashire Witches— <i>Ainsworth, W. H.</i>	Henry VIII.— <i>Shakespeare</i>
Windsor Castle— <i>Ainsworth, W. H.</i>	Cardinal Pole— <i>Ainsworth, W. H.</i>
Tower of London— <i>Ainsworth, W. H.</i>	Francis Cludde— <i>Weyman, Stanley J.</i>
Pendower— <i>Filleuil, M.</i>	Mary Tudor (play)— <i>Tennyson, Lord</i>
The Armourer's 'Prentices— <i>Yonge, C. M.</i>	Lest We Forget— <i>Hocking, J.</i>
Defender of the Faith— <i>Mathew, F.</i>	Mischief of a Glove— <i>De Crespigny.</i>
	Royal Sisters— <i>Mathew, F.</i>

Time-Chart.

61

To illustrate relations with SCOTLAND
in Elizabeth's reign.

YEAR.	ENGLISH HISTORY	SCOTTISH HISTORY	GENERAL HISTORY
1558	Elizabeth, Queen.		Mary Queen of Scots marries Dauphin (1558), who becomes King Francis II of France, 1559
1560		Knot stirs up Reformers, 1559 Mary returns to Scotland, 1561	Death of Francis II, 1560
1565		Mary marries Darnley, 1565 Murder of Darnley and	Religious wars in France.
1570	Mary a prisoner in England, 1568-87 Rising in the North, 1569	Mary's marriage to Bothwell, 1567 Mary a prisoner in Scotland, 1567-8	Roman Catholic rebellion in Ireland, 1567
1575	Period of plots	End of old Franco-Scottish Alliance.	Massacre of St Bartholomew's Day in France, 1572 Protestants driven into exile.
1580			Protestant Dutch Republic founded under William the Silent, 1579 Roman Catholic Rebellion in Munster, 1579-83
1585			English expedition to Netherlands, 1585-86
1587	Mary executed, 1587		
1588	Spanish Armada.		

SCOTLAND IN TUDOR TIMES.

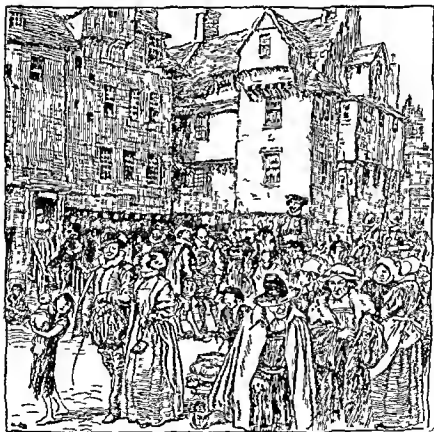
Troublesome Neighbours in the North.

King Henry VII had been wise in many ways. Not only did he give peace to England, but he won the friendship of Scotland. He gave his daughter Margaret to be the wife of King James IV of Scotland.

Unfortunately, when Henry VIII became King peace was soon broken. Spain and France were at war, Henry took sides with Spain and James with France. Henry, when quite young, invaded France, captured the French towns of Terouenne and Tournai, and won the "Battle of Spurs," so called because the French made good use of their spurs in headlong flight from the field. James, on the other hand, resolved to strike a blow for France, and to cement the alliance—already in existence for two hundred years—between the two countries. In 1513 he crossed the Border into England. His army was defeated at Flodden with terrible slaughter, and he himself was killed. In after years the memory of the battle was kept green by the sad lament—"The Flowers o' the Forest are a' wede awa'."

James IV's little son was now proclaimed King as James V. In view of his youth his mother, Margaret Tudor, ruled in his stead. Troubles arose among his nobles, and as soon as he himself began to rule he tried to restore order. In this he would undoubtedly have

succeeded had he not offended his uncle, Henry VIII. Henry wanted him to marry his daughter Mary, who was afterwards Queen of England, but James chose the French king's daughter, Madeleine, for his queen. Madeleine died shortly afterwards. Henry VIII himself, after the death of his third wife, Jane Seymour, thought that he, too, would like to marry a pretty French lady. He chose Mary of Guise. Great was his



A STREET SCENE IN EDINBURGH ABOUT QUEEN MARY'S TIME.

anger when James V. married her instead. Little by little the two countries drifted into war.

In 1542 Henry VIII. sent an army to harry the Border. The English were badly beaten, and James later prepared to march into England. Quarrelling arose among the Scots, and in the King's absence his troops were routed at Solway Moss, in Dumfriesshire.

King James was broken-hearted at the news. Soon afterwards a daughter, Mary, was born to him, but he died when she was a week old. This baby was to be the famous Mary Queen of Scots. On hearing the news James said: "The crown cam' wi' a lass and it will gang wi' a lass," meaning that the crown had come into the Stewart family long ago through the marriage of one of their ancestors to a daughter of Robert the Bruce, and that they would lose it through the girl now born.

As you have already read, the little queen was sent to France, and instead of marrying the boy king, Edward VI., she afterwards married the French king's eldest son.

Her mother, Mary of Guise, governed Scotland as Regent for her daughter, who did not see Scotland again until she was nineteen.



MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS

The New Religion in Scotland.

We have seen how, to a large extent, English rulers forced their religion on their people. We are now to see how the Scottish people forced their religion on their rulers.

A Scotsman, named Patrick Hamilton, visited Germany and became one of Luther's followers. For spreading the new teaching he was burnt in 1528 as a heretic. This and other burnings failed to terrify the Protestant Scots.

One of them, George Wishart by name, preached to his countrymen until, in 1546, Cardinal Beaton had him arrested and burnt at the stake at St. Andrews. Those who had heard him preach and had seen him put to death swore revenge on the Cardinal. Three months later some of them stole into his castle and killed him. Sir David Lyndesay—a poet of that time—wrote these lines:

“As for the Cardinal, I grant
 He was a man we weel could want,¹
 And we'll forget him sune;
 And yet I think, the sooth to say,
 Although the loon is weel away,
 The deed was foully done”

But the man who did more than any other to further the Protestant cause in Scotland was John Knox. Born about the beginning of the sixteenth century, he had a stormy career, and more than once had to flee for his life.

¹ Do without.


He was a devoted friend of Wishart, and would have attended him in his last moments, but Wishart forbade it, saying, "One is sufficient for one sacrifice"

During the Regency of Mary of Guise the Protestant nobles banded themselves together as "The Lords of the Congregation," and, in 1558, they summoned Knox, who had sought refuge on the Continent, back to Scotland to aid them. He entered into the strife with all the energy of a fiery and outspoken nature, and angered friends and foes alike. On one occasion he reduced Queen Mary, with whom he had many arguments, to tears.

In France, the young husband of Mary Queen of Scots was now king, and Mary was able to send French help to her mother against the Reformers. The Protestants, therefore, sent to Queen Elizabeth for help.

Elizabeth was in a difficulty. She was not on good terms with Spain, and she could not afford openly to offend France as well. However, she secretly sent a number of ships to the Firth of Forth, and soon afterwards English soldiers went north to help the Scots against the French. Just at this time Mary of Guise died. Within a month of her death the French were driven out and the English returned home.

At the end of the year news came that the King of France had died. Mary, his young widow, had to bid farewell to the gay land of France and return to her own kingdom in 1561. A thick mist lay over the coasts of Scotland as the young queen landed. "Was seen a more dolourous face of the heaven," wrote John forewarning God gave unto us

*Je pms ceste fois obtenir vons neustes rangs parenteun
direct d'us fidelle & affectonnee que ie vons seray pour
ous de celle qui vons rend & pent servir de mon lit for
eras & mes doctours pour vus satisfaire & obier* 

Extract from a letter written in French from Mary to Elizabeth in which she expresses her fidelity and affection to the latter

A Queen of Tragedy.

We now come to a story so sad that it must be called a tragedy. It is the story of a Scottish queen of such attractive beauty and charm that men gladly risked their lives in fighting and plotting for her sake.

Mary Stewart was born in calamity just before her father's death. She was sent to France you remember, and married the Dauphin, and later for a short time became Queen of France. In time she had to return from the land which had become her home to her native country, where she found mists instead of sunshine, enemies instead of friends. She came to her kingdom a young widow, only nineteen, a Roman Catholic in a nation where Protestantism was finding many supporters.

Nevertheless Mary soon became popular. The nobles owned that there was about her "some enchantment whereby men were bewitched." When she promised

liberty of worship to her subjects, she was doing her utmost to win their loyalty.

Mary was very closely watched by Queen Elizabeth, as you can imagine. If Elizabeth were to die without heirs, Mary Queen of Scots would succeed to the throne of England. Because of this, Elizabeth could not be easy in her mind, for she feared that there would be plots to kill her, so that Mary might be Queen and England become Roman Catholic once more.

Moreover, Elizabeth feared that her beautiful cousin would marry a French or Spanish prince. Then with his help Scotland might become Roman Catholic again, and England would have a powerful enemy on her borders.

Mary, however, in 1565 married her cousin, Lord Darnley. He was only a boy of nineteen at the time, and he had a mean and vain disposition. He was a Roman Catholic of very noble family, and had a claim to the English throne which was next best after Mary's.

It happened that the Queen had as secretary an Italian named Rizzio, who was a great favourite with her, and was consequently distrusted by her enemies. The Protestant nobles made up their minds to get rid of him. One night, several of them, led by the false Darnley, pushed into the room where the Queen and her attendants sat at supper, and, finding the hated Rizzio there, they immediately slew him. Mary could hardly be expected to forgive this murder.

A few months later a little prince was born who was to become James VI. of Scotland, and later James I. of England.

Meanwhile many of the nobles, led by the Earl of Bothwell, joined together again, this time against Lord Darnley, who by recovering from an illness in a lonely house called "Kirk o Field," near Edinburgh. Late one night the house was blown up, and Darnley's dead body and that of his page were found in the garden. Most people believed that Bothwell was responsible for this dreadful thing. Soon afterwards he carried away the Queen and married her in 1567.

The Scots were quite sure that Mary must have been in the plot to murder her husband. They kept her prisoner at Lochleven Castle, and made her give up her crown to her baby son, James VI. It was agreed that her half brother, the Earl of Moray, should rule for him until he was older. After twelve months had gone, however, the news came that the Queen had made her escape. Aided by a page who had stolen the keys from the keepers, Mary slipped from the castle to a waiting boat and was rowed to the shore where a faithful hand awaited her. Riding through the night, the party reached Hamilton Castle where an army was gathered. Her freedom, however, was short lived. Her troops were decisively beaten at Langside by the army of Moray, and the terror-stricken Queen fled over the Border and sought the protection of her cousin Elizabeth. In great distress she wrote to Elizabeth: "It is my earnest request that your Majesty will send for me as soon as possible, for my condition is pitiable, not to say for a queen, but even for a simple gentlewoman." Nevertheless, she was not allowed to see her cousin Elizabeth.

Elizabeth said she must prove that she had no part in her husband's death. The Scottish nobles came to accuse her, bringing with them copies of letters which they said they had found in a silver casket among Bothwell's property. These letters were supposed to have been written by Mary, and, if that was so, they proved that she was guilty. Mary was never allowed to see them; she could only say that she was innocent. In the end Elizabeth declared that the matter was uncertain. Mary was kept prisoner at Bolton Castle, in Yorkshire, where she was honourably treated. Scotland remained quiet, but in England some of the nobles, with the help of Spain, led a rebellion. This rising in the north was firmly put down in 1569.

Now the Pope had hoped that Elizabeth would become a Roman Catholic, but she remained a Protestant, and so, in 1570, she was excommunicated, or deprived of membership in the Roman Church. As there were in England many Roman Catholics, who were her enemies, Elizabeth was in great danger. There were several plots to kill her and to make the beautiful Mary Stewart queen in her stead.

After she had been imprisoned for nearly twenty years, Mary was discovered to be plotting with Philip of Spain. Elizabeth's ministers stopped the letters, copied them, and then sent them on their way. They were looking for proof that the plan was to murder Elizabeth. At last they believed they had found that proof. Mary was tried for treason and found guilty. At first although Parliament wanted her death, Elizabeth would not



QUEEN ELIZABETH AT THE DEER HUNT

(From *The Noble Art of Venery* 1555)

Hunting was an extremely popular sport in Elizabethan times. In spite of the many duties she had to perform, the Queen hunted regularly until she was sixty-seven years of age.



RALFIGH AND HUMPHREY GILBERT LISTENING TO STORIES OF ADVENTURE
IN THE NEW COUNTRY
(See all *drawn for this book by T. Hunt Robinson*)
(See page 83.)

consent At last she gave way, and in 1587 Mary was beheaded

Elizabeth had been right in a little poem she wrote in 1584, in which she spoke of Mary Stewart

"The daughter of debate, that discord aye doth sow,
Shall reap no gain where former rule hath taught still
peace to grow
No foreign banished wight shall anchor in this port,
Our realm it brooks no stranger's face, let them else-
where resort"

For Reading and Reference

James V

Prince of Good Fellows—*Barr, R*

Braes of Yarrow—*Gibbon A*

Tales of a Grandfather—*Scott*

"Marmion —*Scott, Sir Walter*

Mary

Crichton—*Ainsworth, W H*

Outlaws of Marshes—*Hamilton*

The Queens Maries —*Melville*
White

Basile the Jester—*Muddock J E*

The Abbot—*Scott Sir Walter*

The Monastery—*Scott Sir Walter*

Unknown to History—*Longe A*

GOOD QUEEN BESS

The Royal Court.

On few of her rulers has England poured out such a wealth of love, amounting almost to worship, as she did to "Good Queen Bess

Elizabeth was a tall, big boned woman with an air of command, a hard handsome face and auburn hair like her fathers. She had the great, deep voice of a man, and so strong was her pride, so quick her temper, and

Time-Chart.

A.D. 1558 to 1603.

YEAR.	ENGLISH HISTORY		GENERAL HISTORY
	Political	Social and Industrial	
1558	Elizabeth, Queen	Religious Settlement, 1559	
1560		Thirty Nine Articles, 1563 Statute of Apprentices, 1563 Power to assess for poor relief, 1563	Hawkins makes his first voyage to Spanish Main, 1562
1565		Birth of Shakespeare, 1564 (Puritan separation gradually takes place)	
1570	Mary Stewart a prisoner	Poor Rate, 1572	Drake's first voyage to Panama, 1572-3
1575		"Theatre" and "Curtain" opened in London, 1575 Severe laws against Roman Catholics, 1581	
1580		(Craftsmen from Flanders and France take refuge in England throughout the reign)	Drake sails round the world, 1577-80
1585	Execution of Mary Stewart, 1587 Spanish Armada, 1588	Shakespeare's first original play, "Love's Labour's Lost," 1591	Philip of Spain becomes ruler of Portugal, 1582
1590		"Globe" Theatre built, 1594	Gilbert sails for the N W Passage, 1583 Expedition to Virginia, 1585-87.
1595		Monopolies declared illegal, 1601	Raleigh sails to Guiana, 1595.
1600		The First Poor Law, 1601	Rebellion in Ireland, 1595-1603
1603	Death of Elizabeth		

so fierce her anger, that all her court feared her. She scolded her nobles and ladies as though they had been naughty children, and, when she was provoked, she did not hesitate to box their ears. "This woman is possessed of a hundred thousand devils," one of Philip of Spain's envoys wrote to his master. In her ways she seemed more like a man than a woman, and this was the better for England.

Sometimes Elizabeth seemed as gay as her mother, Anne Boleyn. She was very vain, even in her old age, and had more dresses than she could count, and a vast collection of jewels. She loved to be admired, and she looked for compliments as her due. She delighted to go on a "progress" from one noble's house to another, feasting and seeing every sort of entertainment they could give her. In "Kenilworth," a novel written about a hundred years ago by Sir Walter Scott, you will read about the visit she paid to the Earl of Leicester at Kenilworth Castle. She was very fond of dancing and music and plays, and sometimes, too, the Court would ride out into the open fields and woodlands, hunting and hawking, and even shooting, for in these sports she was as skilled as most men.

Yet she could work hard as well. She could speak French and Italian almost as easily as she spoke English, and Latin and Greek she knew well, too. She was as learned as many of the scholars at the universities, and much more able than most of them, for she also understood the affairs of her own day and how to manage them.

Perhaps the great reason for her success is this.

Queen Elizabeth took an interest in everybody, and she was well informed about everything. Statesmen, courtiers, archbishops, Puritans, poets, thinkers, explorers, all came to her for encouragement. Because she knew all classes of men, she could make herself thoroughly popular, and this, as she declared, was her greatest pleasure. "Nothing, no worldly thing under the sun, is so dear to me as the love and goodwill of my subjects."

Her chief adviser was William Cecil, whom she made Secretary of State. He was very wise, very careful, and very loyal to the Queen. It was he who helped her to establish a tolerant Church of England, and he was always watchful to detect plots against her life. She rewarded him by creating him Baron Burghley, and for forty years, until his death in very old age, he was her servant and her friend.

If Elizabeth had ever married she would probably have chosen the Earl of Leicester. But this she dared not do, for fear of offending the other nobles. Leicester was her favourite, and she called him "Sweet Robin." He came to Court as Robert Dudley, the brother of that Lord Guildford Dudley who had married Lady Jane Grey. The Queen soon took him into favour, made him Earl of Leicester, and gave him Kenilworth Castle. He died in the year of the Great Armada, of which you will soon read. Elizabeth had meant him to command her forces if the Spaniards had invaded England, but he was not a good general nor an able man.

After Leicester's death, the Queen had as favourite the young Earl of Essex. Essex served under Leicester

in the Netherlands, where an English army had been sent to help the Dutch, who were Protestants, against Philip of Spain. Elizabeth made him Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, but he did not govern well. He began to plot against the Queen, and drove her to have him beheaded in 1601.

There were other men of different stamp about the Court, however. No more gallant figure can be found than Leicester's nephew, Sir Philip Sidney. Unfortunately, he died young. He was fatally wounded at the battle of Zutphen, in the Netherlands, in 1586. As he lay tortured with thirst, someone brought him a cup of water, but Sidney caught sight of a wounded soldier near him, and gave the cup to this unknown comrade, saying, "Thy necessity is greater than mine."

Not only for his renown as courtier and soldier, and for this last noble action, is Sir Philip Sidney remembered, but for the writings he left behind. He wrote one of the first English novels, called "Arcadia," and a famous "Defence of Poesy," and, besides these a number of beautiful poems. He was little more than thirty when he died, and it is likely that, if he had lived, he would have been one of our greatest poets.

For Reading and Reference

Sir Mortimer—*Johnston, M*
Under the Foeman's Flag —
Leighton, R
Penhurst Castle—*Marshall, E*
Kenilworth—*Scott*

In France
Marguerite de Valois—*Dumas*
The Forty Five Guardsmen —
Dumas
A Gentleman of France—*Weyman*
Count Hannibal—*Weyman*
By England's Aid—*Henty*



FASHIONS IN THE TIME OF ELIZABETH

FASHIONS AND FOOD

Fashions of the Day.

In the reign of Queen Elizabeth people dressed very richly but somewhat clumsily, as you may see from the pictures. They loved gorgeous silks and satins and velvets, with plenty of jewels, even on their hats, their shoes, and their gloves, and buttons made of gold or of diamonds. They stitched pearls and rosettes all over their clothes. Their sleeves were slashed to show the beautiful lining. Women's skirts were drawn back to show the satin of their petticoat, and their bodices were cut to show a rich under bodice. They wore magnificent lace ruffs, stiffened with wire and starched, and often lace at the wrists. They had hats and little caps of velvet or beaver with large feathers.

Their clothes cannot have been very comfortable. Men

wore a long waisted "doublet" or jacket, and "hose" or breeches, and they puffed out their sleeves and legs with padding. They had "nether stocks," or stockings, of silk, and high boots which were cut into patterns, like their gauntlet gloves. A short cloak was fashionable, and it was very costly.

The women drew in their bodices to make a tiny waist. They wore "farthingales," or hooped skirts, rather like a crinoline.

Fashions did not change quickly, and during the reign of James I the Elizabethan styles continued. It was about this time, also, that umbrellas—imported from Italy—began to be used. A writer of 1603 complains that they "do more weary the arms than ease the head."

Old England Dines.

(With Extracts from "Description of England,"
by WILLIAM HARRISON.)

A traveller of those times, William Harrison, writing of English customs, tells us

"It is lawful for every man to feed upon whatso
 "ever he is able to purchase. White meats, milk,
 "butter, and cheese are now thought to be fit only
 "for the common sort, while such as are more
 "wealthy do feed upon the flesh of all kinds of cattle.
 "In number of dishes and change of meat the
 "nobility of England do most exceed, so that there
 "is no day that passeth wherein they have not only
 "beef, mutton, veal, lamb, kid, pork, cony (that is,

sat at the "high table," which was placed on a dais. In smaller houses, where there was one long table for all, they sat at the upper end in the order of their importance. A salt cellar was set to mark them off from the more humble folk and servants. There were very few chairs at this time, and they were reserved for important people. The rest sat on stools.

Even among the most polite it was usual to eat with knives and fingers. Forks were not commonly used until the fashion came from Italy in the early days of James I. An old will, dated 1463, mentioned a fork used for eating ginger, and another will, of 1554, refers to "a spoon with a fork in the handle." Very likely the daintiest people used a spoon of this kind in Tudor days.

"As for drink," Harrison tells us

"It is usually filled in pots, goblets, jugs, and bowls of silver in noblemen's houses, also in fine Venice glass of all forms, all of which are seldom set on the table, but each one calleth for a cup of such drink as it pleaseth him to have, so that, when he has tasted of it, he giveth the cup again to one of the servants, who, *making it clean by pouring out the drink that remaineth*, restoreth it to the cupboard, whence he fetched it.

Even poorer people, such as workmen and labourers, had

"beef, and such meat as the butcher selleth, that is to say, mutton, veal, lamb, and pork, besides brawn, bacon, fruit, pies of fruit, fowls of sundry sorts, cheese, butter, and eggs."



OLD ENGLAND DINERS

"rabbit), capon, or pig, but also some portion of the
 "red or fallow deer, besides great variety of fish
 "and wild fowl Each feedeth upon that meat
 "which he best liketh for the time."

Then, we learn, the food was sent down to the servants, and, when they satisfied themselves, the rest was given to the poor.

The host and his family, with the guests of honour,

sat at the "high table," which was placed on a dais. In smaller houses, where there was one long table for all, they sat at the upper end in the order of their importance. A salt-cellar was set to mark them off from the more bumble folk and servants. There were very few chairs at this time, and they were reserved for important people. The rest sat on stools.

Even among the most polite it was usual to eat with knives and fingers. Forks were not commonly used until the fashion came from Italy in the early days of James I. An old will, dated 1463, mentioned a fork used for eating ginger, and another will, of 1554, refers to "a spoon with a fork in the handle." Very likely the daintiest people used a spoon of this kind in Tudor days.

"As for drink," Harrison tells us :

"It is usually filled in pots, goblets, jugs, and
"bowls of silver in noblemen's houses ; also in fine
"Venice glass of all forms ; all of which are seldom
"set on the table, but each one called for a cup of
"such drink as it pleaseth him to have, so that, when
"he has tasted of it, he giveth the cup again to one
"of the servants, who, *making it clean by pouring*
"*out the drink that remaineth*, restoreth it to the
"cupboard, whence he fetched it."

Even poorer people, such as workmen and labourers, had

"beef, and such meat as the butcher selleth, that is
"to say, mutton, veal, lamb, and pork, besides brawn,
"bacon, fruit, pies of fruit, fowls of sundry sorts,
"cheese, butter, and eggs."

The popular drink was ale, and even the women drank freely of it, for tea, coffee, and cocoa were not yet in use. Those who could afford it drank wine, which was much cheaper then than now.

A Spaniard in Queen Mary's days noted this good fare and wrote

"These English have their houses made of sticks
"and dirt, but they fare commonly so well as a king

Harrison says that

"With us the nobility, gentry, and students do
"ordinarily go to dinner at eleven before noon, and
"to supper at five. The merchants dine and sup
"seldom before twelve at noon and six at night.
"The husbandmen dine also at high noon, as they
"call it, and sup at seven or eight."

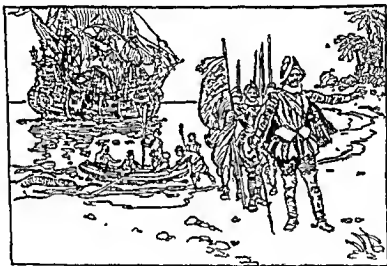
SEA-DOGS OF OLD ENGLAND.

Venturing for Trade.

We are apt to think that Englishmen have always loved to sail across the seas, finding new lands and building up our Empire. This is not so. They originally went to sea, not because they specially loved it, but in order to trade.

In the Middle Ages trade was still very risky. The ships were so small that they were at the mercy of storms and easily wrecked. There were no such charts as we have to day and no lighthouses. To add to these dangers, the sea was infested with pirates.

Under Henry VII. and Henry VIII. the navy was strengthened, and traders were encouraged to find fresh markets. Then came news of the great discoveries made by Spanish and Portuguese sailors. Englishmen wanted a share in these discoveries. You remember Cabot's expedition from Bristol in 1497? From that time men longed to sail out across the ocean and find new lands.



ELIZABETHAN ADVENTURERS LANDING IN A NEW COUNTRY

On page 72 you see a sunburnt sailor from the Spanish Main. The two boys have persuaded him to tell the story of his adventures, and they are spell-bound by it. Some day they too will sail into the unknown and become famous; for he who stands with arms folded is Walter Ralcygh, and the other who squats, chin in hand, is Humphrey Gilbert.

Now the Pope had declared that the New World to the West should belong to Spain, and the lands discovered

nround Africa and eastwards should be Portuguese. But in England the mass of the people no longer obeyed the Pope. They were all the more resolved to venture into these forbidden waters and share in these new discoveries.

Whenever any Englishmen were caught trading in Spanish waters the Spaniards treated them with the greatest cruelty. They were brought before a court known as the Inquisition. Some of them were tortured and flung into dungeons; others were sent to work as slaves in the galleys or on plantations.

Towards the East by Frozen Russia.

In order to avoid Spanish and Portuguese waters, an attempt was made to find a way to the East through the frozen north.

In 1553 the merchants of London spent £6000 on fitting out an expedition "for discovery of regions, dominions, islands, and places unknown." They chose as leader a well-known sailor, Sir Hugh Willoughby. He was put in command of the *Bona Esperanza* (Good Hope), a little ship of 120 tons, carrying thirty-five men. There were two other ships, one larger, the other smaller than this one. The *Edward Bona-venture*, commanded by another famous seaman, Richard Chancellor, was of 160 tons, and carried fifty men. The little ship, which was of only ninety tons, was called the *Bona Confidentia*, and carried twenty-eight men and her captain, Cornelius Durfoorth.

Muscovy Company) specially to trade with Russia, or Muscovy as it was then called

Two years after his first visit to Russia, Chancellor went again to see the Czar and spent the winter in Moscow. On his return journey he was caught in a storm and he and his ship were lost off the coast of Aberdeenshire.

Seeking the North-West Passage.

At the same time voyages were also being made to the North West in the hope of finding a passage to the East. One of the earliest adventurers was Martin Frobisher, who was born in Normanton, in Yorkshire. He set sail, crossed the Atlantic, passed Labrador and reached the south of Baffin Island. Here he found an inlet which he thought would lead round the coast, but it proved to be a bay which, in honour of him, we now call Frobisher Bay. He could not find a way through and had to come back to London.

Another explorer named John Davis a Devon man, and one of the finest sailors England has ever had, made three voyages to the frozen north. He, too, thought he could get round the north of America to China. On his third voyage he went as far as the northern coast of Baffin Island, and the sea there is still known as Davis Strait.

One of the strangest stories of exploration in olden times is that of a law student named Humphrey Gilbert, who gave up study to be a soldier and later a sailor. In

1578 he set sail to find the North-West Passage, taking with him his younger half-brother, Walter Raleigh. His voyage was a vain one.

Five years later he tried again with five ships. His own was the *Squirrel*, of only ten tons, and a second was called *The Golden Hind*. He landed in Newfoundland and claimed it for Queen Elizabeth.

On the way home a great tempest came on near the Azores; three of the ships were lost, and Sir Humphrey's was badly tossed about. Shortly afterwards the end came. The captain of *The Golden Hind* tells us in his own words what happened :

"On Monday, the 9th of September, the *Squirrel* was near cast away, yet at that time recovered; and, giving forth signs of joy, the General (Sir Humphrey), sitting abaft with a book in his hand, cried to us in the *Hind*: 'We are as near to Heaven by sea as by land.' The same night the *Squirrel's* lights went suddenly out, and it was devoured and swallowed up by the sea."

A quaint old ballad, written after the sad news of the loss of Sir Humphrey, reads :

"You gallaats all o' the British blood,
Why don't you sail o' th' ocean flood?
I protest you're not all worth a filbert
If oace compared to Sir Humphrey Gilbert.

"For he went out on n rainy day,
And to the now found land found out his way,
With many a gallant, both fresh and green,
And he ne'er came homo agen. God bless the Queen!"

Captain Hawkins, Slave-Trader.

In the northerly voyages of exploration already described, the aim was to avoid the Spaniards and discover new lands for England. Other adventurers, however, decided to meet the Spaniards in their own waters.

In the days of Henry VIII there lived in Plymouth a family named Hawkins. The son, John, went to sea in his father's ship, and was known to be a fearless sailor.

At first John Hawkins was on friendly terms with the Spaniards. He had heard that in the West Indies they liked slaves to do their work for them. In 1562, when Elizabeth was Queen, he sailed to Guinea, in the West of Africa. Thence he took three hundred negroes across the Atlantic to the Island of Hayti, in the West Indies. He found that the Spaniards were willing to pay a good price for these negroes.

The King of Spain forbade Spaniards to buy slaves from Englishmen, but two years later Captain John Hawkins arranged to take them more negroes. On his arrival at the West Indies the Spaniards had a sham fight with him, so that they could pretend that he had forced them to buy the slaves. Hawkins disposed of his cargo and sailed away a rich man.

On his way home he went north to Florida where Huguenots—as French Protestants were called—had settled. Then he went to still colder regions and visited Newfoundland, where ships of all nations came to fish. After three years he returned to Plymouth.

Brave though he was, Hawkins was largely a slave-trader.

Sir Francis Drake.

Hawkins had a kinsman, a Devonshire captain named Francis Drake, who was a much greater man than himself. In 1572 Drake set out with three little ships and a party of brave adventurers. They were men who could fight as well on sea as on land. Reaching the Spanish Main they attacked the town of Nombre de Dios, "wherein the golden harvest brought from Peru and Mexico to Panama was hoarded up till it could be conveyed to Spain." There they took many bars of gold and silver as booty. Later they waylaid some Spanish treasure ships and captured their precious cargoes. Drake then heard that a number of mules were bringing gold from Panama, and he made up his mind to obtain that gold, though his ships were already laden. Again he was successful. On their way back to the ships his men discovered that Spanish vessels were at anchor where theirs had been, and that their own had gone farther out to sea for safety. Drake and his comrades thereupon made a raft and succeeded in reaching their own ships. Laden with treasure after his adventures, the great captain sailed into Plymouth Sound a wealthy and a famous man, and all England resounded with his praises.

The best known voyage of this famous Elizabethan sailor was made in 1577, when he set out to sail the Pacific Ocean. The Spaniards did not expect him on the Pacific coast, and he was able to get possession of much treasure without difficulty. He sacked the town of St. Iago, and took from it four hundred pounds of pure gold. Further on he found a Spaniard sleeping on

the shore, "and by him thirteen bars and ^{*}wedges of silver, to the value of 400,000 ducats," which Drake "commanded to be carried away, not once waking the man" Later he met with 'a most fair rich ship'—the *Cacafuego*—and took her, "and in her, besides pearls and precious stones, fourscore pound weight of gold, and so great quantity of silver as would have sufficed to ballast a ship' Drake then went his way across the Pacific Ocean and right round the world back to England Ho was the first Englishman to do this, and Queen Elizabeth was so proud of him that she came down to Deptford, where his ship—*The Golden Hind*—was lying, and made him Sir Francis Drake

The boys of Winchester School sent him this verse, which was pinned up on the mast of *The Golden Hind*

"Sir Drake, whom well the world's end knows,
Which thou didst compass round,
And whom both poles of Heaven once saw,
Which North and South do bound,
The stars above will make thee known,
If men here silent were
The sun himself cannot forget
His fellow traveller

The Spanish Armada.

To King Philip of Spain, who was now King of Portugal also, the English adventurers in Spanish waters were no other than pirates He made several complaints to Queen Elizabeth, but she took no steps for his benefit In 1585 Drake led a further expedition into the

Spanish West Indies to plunder and burn. They sacked Santiago in the Cape Verd Islands, San Domingo and Cartagena on the Spanish Main, and came back laden with plunder and without a scratch.

This daring exploit angered Philip yet more, and he was already planning an attack on England when Mary Stewart was executed in 1587. Before she died she left her claim to the throne to Philip. He therefore decided on an open attack, and began to prepare a great fleet of galleons, or war ships, which he called "The Invincible Armada."

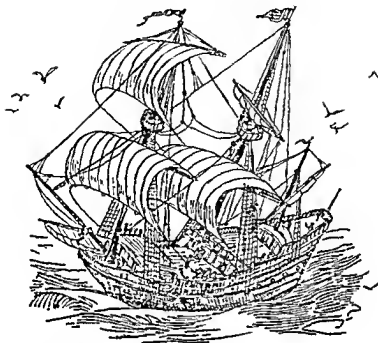
Drake was now on his mettle. He set sail with thirty small ships and boldly entered Cadiz Bay, where a great part of the Spanish fleet was collected. There he destroyed between forty and fifty ships, together with a large store of provisions. After this "singeing of the Spanish King's beard"—to use his own words—he returned in triumph. This delayed the sailing of the Armada for almost a year, but in 1588 the mighty fleet set sail to punish England.

On the 19th of July 1588, watchers from the Lizard, in Cornwall, caught their first sight of the enemy advancing in a great crescent. Beacons were instantly lit, and from cape to cape and hill to hill the tidings of danger swiftly spread, arousing the nation to arms.

"Far on the deep the Spaniard saw along each southern
shire,

Cape beyond cape, in endless range, those twinkling
points of fire."

You must read Lord Macaulay's poem in full because of the vivid picture it gives



AN ELIZABETHAN SHIP.

Note its low build, compare it with the Spanish galleon on page 93.

In this time of danger it was to Drake that all men looked. . Newbolt—a poet—tells us :

"Drake nor devil nor Spaniard feared,
 Their cities he put to the sack ;
 He siaged his Catholic Majesty's beard,
 And harried his ships to wrack.
 He was playing at Plymouth a rubber of bowls
 When the great Armada came :
 But he said, 'They must wait their turn, good souls,'
 And he stooped and finished the game."

It is doubtful if this story of Drake playing bowls is true, but such an act would be characteristic of the man.

Meanwhile a great army was prepared to resist the invaders. Elizabeth herself, on a white horse, rode down to the camp at Tilbury, "resolved in the midst and heat of battle to live or die amongst you all. I know," she said, "that I have the body but of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and of a King of England too."

The whole nation waited breathlessly.

In the Armada were one hundred and thirty ships manned by eight thousand seamen, and carrying nineteen thousand soldiers. Only fifty of these ships were meant to fight a sea battle. The others were laden with stores and troops, ready to land. The Spanish galleons were of a



A SPANISH GALLEON
(From an old print)

terrifying height, like floating castles. The English ships were small and low-lying, and in actual numbers there were more of them than of the Spanish. Only thirty ships, however, were really men-of-war, although besides these, about twelve merchant ships could put up a stout fight. Many tiny craft gathered against the Armada, but

they took no part in the fighting. The Spaniards had few guns and little powder considering the size of their ships, the English were better armed. In those days guns could not be tilted up and down according to the height of the target. If a captain wanted his guns to fire upward or downward his ship had to heave over on one side until they were at the correct angle. It was in gunnery that the English ships had the advantage.

The Spaniards relied on catching the English ships at close quarters so that their soldiers could board them and fight hand to hand. The nimble little English ships were wise enough to keep out of reach, firing at long range into the broad sides of the Spanish vessels often hitting them below the water line. The Spaniards, on the other hand found it difficult to hit an English ship because their own craft rolled in the heavy seas and their guns fired into the air.

Up the Channel lumbered the Armada. Close in its wake came the quick little English ships, catching and destroying every straggler, and fighting three sharp battles in a week. They called this 'plucking the feathers of the Spaniard one by one'. At last the Armada reached Calais and anchored in the Roads, where it was to take on board fresh soldiers. Suddenly eight fire ships came drifting down the tide. The Spaniards, fearing for their great wooden ships were panic stricken. They cut their cables and scattered and six of them were lost.

The English fleet now blocked the Channel, so that the Spaniards must fight their way back to Spain if they wanted to return the way they had come. Riddled with bullets, the Armada had lost four thousand men. Many

vessels had their sails torn and their masts shot away, whereas very little damage had been done to the English ships. At last, the great galleons turned in despair and fled northwards. "Never anything pleased me better," wrote Drake, "than seeing the enemy fly with a southerly wind to the northwards." The English chased them as far as the Firth of Forth. Storms finished the deadly work begun by Drake and the other "sea dogs" of "Good Queen Bess." Off the Orkneys and the Faeroes, the Scottish headlands, and the jagged cliffs of the Irish coast, ship after ship was wrecked. In that week of fighting the English lost sixty men, but the Spaniards lost more than sixty ships. Only fifty three ships of the great Armada straggled back to Spain with about a third of the army that had set out to conquer England! Philip "shut himself up in his palace and no one dared to speak to him." "I sent you forth to fight with men and not with the elements," was all he said.

England could now breathe freely. The days of plots were over, and the fear of Spain had passed like a nightmare. Elizabeth had a medal struck, and on it, in Latin, the words, "God blew with his wind and they were scattered."

The Story of Sir Walter Raleigh.

One of the most famous figures of this time was Sir Walter Raleigh, whose life was one of ups and downs. He was a Devonshire gentleman, brave and handsome,

and, while he was still only sixteen, he fought for his country in France and the Netherlands. Later, as you have already learnt, he sailed with Sir Humphrey Gilbert on the expedition to find a way round the frozen north of America. Afterwards he held office in Ireland as Governor of Cork, and here he met the poet Spenser.

He returned to England, and one day he chanced to be in the crowd which stood watching the Queen make her way down to the river, where her barge awaited her. The ground was muddy and, coming to a puddle, she hesitated. Instantly Raleigh flung off his rich velvet cloak and laid it at her feet for her to walk over it. Thus, at a bound, he won the royal favour.

It is said that he once took a diamond and wrote upon a window :

“Fain would I climh, but that I fear to fall.”

The Queen read this and, to encourage him, wrote underneath it.

“If thy heart fail thee, climb not at all.”

The truth was that Raleigh was too fond of adventure to settle at Court. He sent out ships to America in 1585 to found a colony, which he called Virginia, in honour of the Virgin Queen. The colony did not prosper, however, and the colonists were brought home next year. One result was that potatoes, which had hitherto been unknown to our people, were brought back. Raleigh planted them in his Irish home, and to-day potatoes form one of the chief products of Irish agriculture. It is said that Raleigh also introduced

tobacco, but this is not true; Sir John Hawkins had already done that ten years earlier. But it was Raleigh who made tobacco popular. There is a story that one of his servants, terrified at seeing smoke coming from his nose and mouth; thought that he must be on fire and threw a bucket of water over him.

Raleigh continued to prosper at Court. He received a knighthood and a grant of money and land in Ireland, and he became a Member of Parliament. Employed as Lord Lieutenant of Cornwall he helped to fight against the Armada in 1588. But next year he lost the Queen's favour, the reason being, it is said, that he loved one of the court maids-of-honour, which aroused the jealousy of the Queen. She sent the pair of them to the Tower, but soon liberated them, and afterwards they were married.

Soon Raleigh heard the rumour of a land of untold wealth, which the Spaniards called El Dorado, or the Land of Gold. Eager to seek it, he took ship again and, in 1595, reached Trinidad. He found the coast of Guiana and tried to sail up the River Orinoco, but the river flowed with such a strong current that the ships could make no headway. So Raleigh gained no gold, although years afterwards gold-mines were worked in Guiana. For the benefit of his countrymen the great sailor wrote an account of Guiana shortly after his return home.

It was not long before he was at sea again, this time with Essex, to attack Cadiz. Here he distinguished himself by his daring, and completely won the Queen's forgiveness.

In 1603, however, Elizabeth died, and in James I. England had a ruler of different character. There was a

plot against the now king, and, when it was discovered, the ringleader untruly accused Raleigh of taking a share in it. He had a very unfair trial and was condemned to execution. On the eve of the day fixed, however, the King relented and sent him to the Tower instead. Here Raleigh spent twelve years. He employed the time in designing a ship, making chemical experiments, and writing poetry, pamphlets, and a great "History of the World." He enjoyed the friendship of Prince Henry, the King's eldest son, who died at the age of eighteen. "No one but my father would keep such a bird in a cage," this prince once said.

Naturally Raleigh became restless in captivity, and at last he proposed to the King that he should be allowed to make one last voyage to Guiana to win the gold of El Dorado for the King, as the price of his release. If he could find half a ton of gold he was to be pardoned.

James was as cowardly as he was greedy. He wished the gold but he dared not offend the King of Spain. So he let Raleigh go on condition that he did not attack the Spaniards.

Bad luck upset all Raleigh's plans. There were storms at sea, one ship was lost, and the rest were battered and driven out of their course. His men were mutinous, and scurvy and fever diminished their numbers. He himself was too ill to command the expedition, and had to wait in suspense at the mouth of the Orinoco. His lieutenant, Keymis, with five ships, struggled up stream, only to find that a Spanish settlement had been made since their last visit of twenty years ago, and they could not get past without a fight. They

captured the settlement, but the Spaniards fled and remained at large to harass them. Raleigh's only son was killed in the fighting. Keymis had to return, and in his grief he stabbed himself.

Raleigh's men would no longer obey him. He wanted to sail upstream again, or else to capture the Spanish treasure ships which sailed from Mexico, but his men said that, even if they succeeded, the King would only hang them for it. So there was nothing for it but to go back empty-handed to his fate.

In 1618 he sailed into Plymouth for the last time. Spain demanded his punishment. James was at that time trying to arrange a marriage between his son Charles and the daughter of the Spanish king, and, to gain his own ends, he ordered Raleigh's execution. Englishmen loved Sir Walter and hated Spain, and they never forgave James for this act.

The night before Raleigh died he wrote these lines :

“ Even such is Time, that takes in trust
Our youth, our joys, our all we have,
And pays us but with earth and dust,
Who in the dark and silent grave,
When we have wandered all our ways,
Shuts up the story of our days,
But from this earth, this grave, this dust,
My God shall raise me up, I trust.”

For Reading and Reference.

- | | |
|--|--|
| Voyages of the Elizabethan Sea-
men— <i>Payne and Beazley</i> | English Seamen of the Sixteenth
Century— <i>Froude, J A</i> |
| Drake (Twelve Sailors)— <i>Bedford</i> | Last Fight of the <i>Revenge</i> — |
| Westward Ho!— <i>Kingsley, Charles</i> | <i>Raleigh, Sir Walter</i> |

IRELAND IN THE REIGN OF ELIZABETH.

(With extract adapted from ' View of the State of
Ireland, by EDMUND SPENSER)

[Henry VII made peace in Ireland by allowing an Irishman, the Earl of Kildare, to govern it Henry VIII kept the Irish nobles quiet by giving them English titles Edward VI and Mary had very little trouble, but in Elizabeth's reign rebellions broke out

There was much fighting, and the country was so poor that 30,000 people died of starvation Elizabeth decided to "plant Munster, that is, she gave out Irish land to Englishmen, who "undertook ' to get English colonists to settle there They were therefore called "undertakers The poet Spenser, who wrote the "Faerie Queene, and Sir Walter Raleigh, of whom you have read, were both "undertakers " Spenser will now tell us about Ireland in his own words]

"The Irish at this day, when they go to battle, say certain prayers or charms to their swords, making a cross therewith upon the earth, and thrusting the points of their blades into the ground, thinking thereby to have the better success in fight.

Likewise at the kindling of the fire, and lighting of candles, they say certain prayers, and use some other superstitious rites, which show that they honour the fire and the light

The chiefest abuses which are now in that realm are

grown from the English [Spenser means the settlers of Henry II's time], and some of them are now much more lawless than the very wild Irish. Some in Leinster and Ulster are quite departed from their race, yea, and some of them have quite shaken off their English names, and put on Irish that they might be altogether Irish.

I have heard some great warriors say, that, in all the services that they had seen abroad in foreign countries, they never saw a more comely man than the Irishman; nor that cometh on more bravely in his charge, neither is his manner of mounting unseemly, though he lack stirrups, but is more ready than with stirrups, for, in his getting up, *his horse is still going*, whereby he giveth way.

It is well known that he is a flying enemy, hiding himself in woods and hogs, from whence he will not draw forth, but into some straight passage or perilous ford, where he knows the army must needs pass, there will he lie in wait, and, if he find advantage fit, will dangerously hazard the troubled soldier.

In these late wars of Munster (1579-83), notwithstanding that the same was a most rich and plentiful country, full of corn and cattle, that you would have thought they should have been able to stand long, yet ere one year and a half they were brought to such wretchedness, as that any stony heart would have rued the same.

Out of every corner of the woods and glens they came creeping forth upon their hands, for their legs could not bear them, they looked like figures of death, they spake like ghosts crying out of their graves, they did eat the

dead carrions happy where they could find them, yea, and one another soon after, insomuch as the very carcasses they spared not to serape out of their graves And, if they found a plot of watercress or shamrocks, thero they flocked as to a feast for the time, that, in short space, there were none almost left, and a most populous and plentiful country suddenly left void of man and beast"

" It was not until the time of the Protectorate that Ireland found any prosperity, and right down to our own times she has always complained against the English rule, sometynes with good reason

For Reading and Reference

Rebellion of Silken Thomas (from Hibernian Nights Enter tainments)— <i>Ferguson</i> Sir <i>Samuel</i>	Flight of the Eagle— <i>O Grady</i> <i>Standish</i>
Bog of Stars— <i>O Grady, Standish</i>	With Essex in Ireland— <i>Lawless,</i> <i>E</i>

TOWNS-PEOPLE AND COUNTRY- PEOPLE

The Boy Apprentices.

Wo have seen that under the earlier Tudors many people were thrown out of work Let us seo how far their condition improved in the reign of Elizabeth

In the towns, many of the skilled craftsmen received very low wages, partly because of the competition of those outside the towns, where gild rules were not

observed As a remedy for this, a law was passed in 1563 forcing every boy who wished to work at a craft to serve seven years' apprenticeship in learning that craft.



MAKING AND SELLING SHOES.

(From an old print)

'Companies' in place of the old guilds were formed, but they were ruled, not by the journeymen themselves, but mostly by masters. A register of apprentices was kept, and work had to be of good quality, but the company had no power to fix the rate of wages. This was done by the Justices of the Peace, who met once a year to ask advice from certain craftsmen and merchants, and decide upon the *smallest* wage that could be paid. Employers could pay as much more as they liked, but they must not pay *less*. Any employer who attempted to pay less would be punished.

At this time also new coins were brought out instead of the old worthless ones. This made prices steadier. The towns flourished, and many unemployed craftsmen found work.

When a boy started work, he knew that several years would pass before he received any wages. He was bound apprentice for a sum of money to a certain master

craftsman in order to learn the trade. He had to obey the orders of his master and mistress in return for his board and lodging and his clothes.

After the period of apprenticeship was completed the apprentice became a journeyman, and received wages for work done by the day, which, in French, is "la journée."

In due time he might rise to be a master craftsman with the approval of his gild, and by that time he would be employing journeymen and apprentices of his own.

These boy apprentices were often very happy. They saw a good deal of life, for they were out in the streets day by day, fetching water for their master's household and running errands. At night, if their master and mistress went out, the apprentices had to escort them, carrying lanterns or torches (called "links"), and, as a protection against robbers, they had clubs slung round their necks.

They had one grievance, however, in the matter of clothes. In the Middle Ages apprentices had worn "the ordinary habit of a citizen." In winter this was a blue gown which reached just below the knee; in summer it was a blue cloak of full length. Breeches and stockings were of white broadcloth. Their hair was close cut, and they had a flat woollen cap.

This was all very well when it was the fashion. But in Tudor times the masters still gave their apprentices the same style of dress, which was regarded as a uniform. You can understand how odd it made the boys feel. The richly-dressed pages at the court used to mock at them and call them "Flat-caps."

So you will not be surprised to hear that sometimes



APPRENTICES AND YOUNG CRAFTSMEN IN ELIZABETH'S TIME.

(Drawn especially for this book by Gordon Brown.)

the apprentices managed to get themselves fine clothes and went about the town swaggering like the court pages.

Whenever there was a riot in the town, be sure the



NIGHT WATCHMEN

apprentices were in the thick of it. A lawyer named Master Hall tells us how, in Henry VIII's reign, one of these apprentices got into trouble for taking part in a fencing match during forbidden hours. One of the aldermen took him by the arm to arrest him, but "all the young men resisted the alderman,"¹ and the cry was

raised "'Prentices and clubs!' Then out of every door came clubs and weapons, and the alderman fled, and was in great danger.

In Elizabeth's reign laws were passed to keep the apprentices in order. They were no longer to assume clothes and habits which were not in keeping with their work. Let us hope that instead they took the advice of an old writer² and "gloried in the ensigns of their honest apprenticeship."

Workers on the Land.

In Elizabeth's time the country-people began to have a happier lot. You remember that the enclosure of open fields and of common land had been a great hardship to

¹ Hall's Chronicle.

² Stow's Survey of London c. 1600.

them. It now became the custom for enclosed land to be let to tenants, and many who had had scattered strips before, now had their land all in one place. A farmer was able to use improved methods of farming without interference from his neighbours, because his strips were no longer mixed up with theirs.

So well did some of these small holders work their farms that they could grow far more grain than they had done before their fields were hedged round. Very soon they needed labourers. A law was passed to force all able-bodied beggars to take work in the fields if they were needed. They would not be excused except for very strong reasons, and not at all at harvest-time. It was made law that a farmer must agree to hire his servants and labourers for at least a year at a time. Under these laws trade improved, the towns prospered, farms flourished, and most people who wanted work could find it.

Beggars and Rogues.

In those days there were great numbers of homeless people. Under Henry VIII. and Edward VI. cruel laws had been passed against vagrants, by which they were to be whipped or branded, or even put to death. Cruelty did not cure the trouble.

In 1601 every parish was made to support its own poor. A "collector" for the poor was appointed, a register of poor people was kept, and well-to-do persons were taxed so that the poor could be looked after. It also became lawful for the children of idle people to be

taken away from their parents and apprenticed to a craft, so that they would grow up to be hard-working citizens.

With the money collected, hemp, flax, and wool were bought. Those who were in sufficiently good health were made to spin and weave them and were paid for their work. The things they made were sold by the collectors, and the money used to buy more materials. There were houses of correction, or "workhouses," for those who



A STREET IN THE POORE QUARTERS—SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

refused to do the work given them. Almshouses too were built for the old folk who could no longer work, and many of these can still be seen.

There was another kind of begging which was considered quite honourable. Poor university students, sailors, soldiers, and collectors for hospitals were given licences to beg by the Queen, and no one thought any less of them for doing so. Many a great scholar could

look back to his student days when he begged his bread from London to Oxford by permission of good Queen Bess.

Not all the beggars were deserving cases, nor were they even lazy folk. Sometimes they were active in roguery.

The roads in the country-side and the slum districts in the towns were infested with these rogues. Some of them pretended to have a trade as a means of making money, and perhaps a few of these would have lived on it if they could. In Shakespeare's play, "The Winter's Tale," there is a jolly pedlar who confesses that he steals the clothes hung out to dry. Besides pedlars and ballad-mongers, there were tinkers, jugglers, minstrels, players, "bear-wards" or bear-keepers, and gipsies, and they were mostly dishonest. Disbanded soldiers, who were often crippled and could get no work, joined these "gentry of the road," since they had no pension.

Not only did these rogues steal any articles they found unguarded, and any chickens they could catch, but often they stopped people and robbed them. Indeed, it was most unsafe to travel in the country because of highwaymen, and in the towns there were "footpads" in the badly lighted streets to waylay those who were out late at night.

The town was overrun with pickpockets, who, like the gipsies, had their own language. They lived together in certain quarters of the town where they were safe from the law. If you read "The Fortunes of Nigel," by Sir Walter Scott, you will learn all about one of these "thieves' quarters," or sanctuaries.

One of the chief resorts for pickpockets was, strange to say, St Paul's Cathedral. Harrison Ainsworth, the novelist, gives us a picture of what could be seen at the Cathedral in those days. He writes



TAKING A ROBBER TO THE GALLOWES.
(From an old print)

"St Paul's Churchyard was formerly the great mart (market) for booksellers. At the period of this history they did not confine themselves to the outside of the Cathedral, but fixed their shops against the massive pillars of its nave.

Besides booksellers, there were seamstresses, tobacco merchants, vendors of fruit and provisions, and Jews, all of whom had stalls within the Cathedral.

Before ten o'clock, Paul's Walk, as the nave was termed, was thronged by apprentices, rufflers (swaggering rogues), porters, water-carriers, higglers (second hand clothes sellers) with baskets on their heads, fish-wives, quack-doctors, cut purses, merchants, lawyers, and serving men who came to be hired, and

“who stationed themselves near an oaken block
“attached to one of the pillars and called the
“serving man’s log

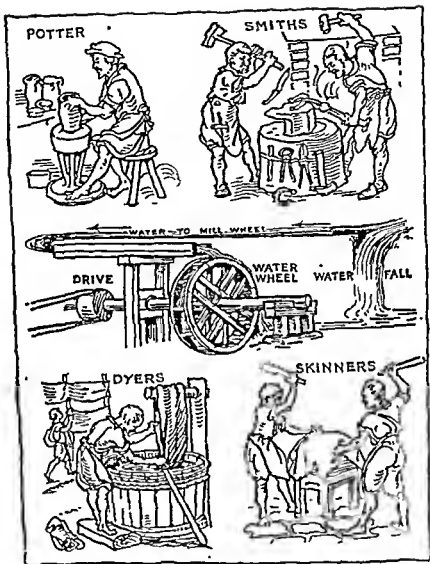
It was not until the reign of Charles I that a famous churchman, named Archbishop Laud, had the Cathedral cleared of these tradesmen and thieves. He quoted the words of Christ, “My house is called the house of prayer, but ye have made it a den of thieves. After the Restoration the old bad ways came in again, until in the Great Fire the Cathedral itself perished.

The rogues who were caught in robbery or violence underwent very severe punishments, such as branding, loss of the right hand hanging, or transportation to slavery. Debtors were kept in prison, herded together in filthy conditions, with no hope of release.

For tradesmen guilty of cheating and petty thieves there were lighter punishments as you will see from the picture. They were fined and had to sit in the stocks, or stand in the pillory, a butt for anything that might be thrown at them.



THE PILLORY



SOME INDUSTRIES OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

(From prints of the period.)

Note the potter turning his "wheel" or stand with his toe.

The water wheel is also a reproduction of a drawing of the period—when water and wind formed the only sources of mechanical power.

A ballad, which was sung in the later years of the sixteenth century, speaks of this new greedy class:

“For they that of late did sup
 Out of an ashen cup
 Are wonderfully sprung up ;
 He that nought was worth of late,
 Hath now a cupboard of plate,
 His table furnished too
 With plate beset enow
 Persell¹ gilt and sound,
 Well worth two thousand pound.
 With casting counters and their pen,
 These are the upstart gentlemen.”

PLEASURES OF THE PERIOD.

Merrie England.

(With Extracts from PHILIP STUBBES.)

I dare say you wonder how people amused themselves in the days of Elizabeth, especially in little out-of-the-way villages.

Everyone kept holiday at certain seasons of the year, of which the chief were Shrove Tuesday, Easter, May Day, Whit-Sunday, Midsummer Eve, Harvest Home, Hallowe'en, and Christmas. The Puritans, of whom you have heard, thought that these old festivals were wrongly kept. One of them, a man named Philip Stubbes, tells us about May Day.

The people spent the night beforehand in dancing

¹ Persell—part.

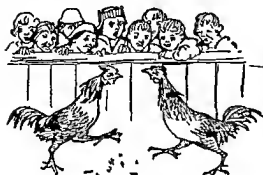
their stumps dancing, their bells jingling, their handkerchiefs swinging above their heads like madmen, their hobby-horses and other monsters skirmishing amongst the throng. and in this sort they go to the church, and into the church (though the minister be at prayer and preaching), dancing and swinging their handkerchiefs over their heads in the church, with such a confused noise that no man can hear his own voice. Then the foolish people they look, they stare, they laugh, and mount upon forms and pews to see."

Sometimes the country-people would act simple plays, such as St. George and the Dragon, or the story of Robin Hood. The actors were known as "mummers." In the towns, as we have seen, the gilds acted longer plays. There were only four theatres in England, all of them just outside London, but there were also travelling companies of players, although they were as rare as a circus is to-day. Now and then there were fairs, and all the country-folk flocked to them.

People were always glad of an excuse for merry-making, such as a christening or a wedding. The word "bridal" comes from the old *Bride-Ale*. Home-brewed ale was the popular drink, and Church Ales were held to raise funds for the Church.

Many of the old sports have died out, for they were very cruel. There was a famous Bear Garden, near the Globe Theatre, and crowds of people went there to watch the bear-baiting and bull-baiting. A traveller tells us that the bear or bull was fastened behind, and then "worried by great English dogs and mastiffs, but not without great risks to the dogs from the teeth

of the one and the horns of the other, and it sometimes happens they are killed upon the spot" Sometimes a pony, with an ape fastened to its back was "baited," or worried, in the same way. Dog-fights were also arranged, and there was cock-fighting, each cock wearing steel



COCK FIGHTING

(From contemporary drawings)

GOLF

spurs. Coursing, or setting dogs to catch hares, still continues.

Not only were men cruel towards animals, but they were just as cruel in their sports with each other. They were fond of wrestling and boxing, and they liked to fight with great clubs called cudgels, or with sticks, called single-sticks, or large blunt swords, called broad-swords. Nowadays we are careful not to hurt each other badly, and we have rules against foul play. But at this time men often had their bones broken. Football was played, but not as we know it. Mr Stubbes tells us that it was "a murdering practice," and many a man got "either wounded or bruised, so as he dieth of it, or else scapeth very hardly."

The nobles and gentry had more dignified sports.

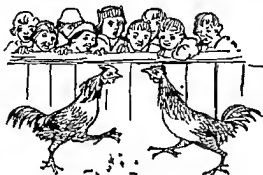
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They loved riding, hunting, and shooting, just as they do to-day. They went hawking; the hawk was trained to bring down herons and smaller birds. They practised archery and fencing. Sir Philip Sidney, we are told, excelled also at running and leaping, and at swimming.



HUNTING THE DEER (From MS drawing)

Tennis and golf were played, and such quiet games as bowls, quoits, and skittles. Fishing and rowing were as popular then as now.

At fairs and holidays a favourite sport was tilting at the Quintain—often on horseback. This was a target hanging from the cross-beam of a post. To make the sport more amusing the Quintain was usually in the shape of a figure which turned round and round; or it might be a plank weighted with a sandbag. Galloping towards it on horseback, men thrust at it with lances, long poles, or darts. Unless it was hit right in the middle, it swung round and gave the unskilful tilter a bump.

Indoors, men played chess, draughts, and similar games; billiards was just coming in. Games with cards and dice were very common, and so were the guessing games and forfeits we have to-day.

Plays for the People.

In the Middle Ages the priests and monks used to write little plays in Latin from Bible stories, and either to act them themselves or to have boys from the monastery school to do it. Later these plays came to be rendered in English.

These plays told the stories of the Scriptures from the Creation and the Flood to the life of our Lord. Although they were, for the most part, serious and religious, there were often funny scenes, and the priests joined in the laughter. At Wakefield, for instance, there were comic parts in the play about the Flood, in which Noah's wife refuses to go into the Ark. The play about the Shepherds on Christmas Eve was also very amusing in some places, and very beautiful in others. King Herod, too, was shown as a raging, roaring, funny man, and every new 'Herod' tried to "out Herod" the actor who played the part before him.

Because they dealt with sacred history and religious beliefs like the Creation and the Resurrection, they were often called *mysteries*, or *mystery-plays*. Soon, however, craft guilds and schools began to act plays about the lives and martyrdom of their patron saints. These were known as *miracle plays*. As time went on, the guilds, instead of the clergy, acted the mystery plays also. Then people began to call all religious plays "miracle plays."

As the years went by each craft guild acted one story or pageant on a certain festival of the year, so that there were as many pageants as guilds. At Coventry and York the plays were acted on Corpus Christi day, at Chester on Whitsunday.

In Chester, we are told each gild had its scaffold with two rooms—an upper and a lower—fixed on wheels. The lower was closed in as a dressing room, but the upper was an open stage so that all might see the pageant, which was so called because it was played on a “pageant, or platform.”

The costumes of the actors were of a set style. God and his saints were represented by actors wearing gilt hair and beards, angels had gold skins and wings, righteous souls were in white coats, and lost souls in black ones. Herod was always dressed as a Saracen, and the devils wore large hideous heads and forked tails.

The men and women, boys and girls liked to think of virtues and vices as knights and fair ladies, and dragons. They made up stories in which “Wisdom” and “Justice,” “Sloth” and “Envy” were real beings who could talk and act. In the fifteenth century these stories grow into plays, and were acted after the same manner as the miracle plays. They were known as the “morality plays.” Although these performances sought to teach a lesson, they became popular because they were funny as well. They borrowed two comic characters from the miracle plays: the “Devil” and his servant “Vice,” who was usually dressed as a jester. The crowds laughed and stamped to see “Vice” teasing his master the “Devil.” Such a favourite did “Vice” become, that great writers of plays, many years later, often put a jester or fool into the comic scenes of their plays.

Both miracle and morality plays were still acted here and there in England down to the days of Elizabeth. Gradually, however, men of wit began to write plays in

which the characters were everyday men and women. These plays were acted usually in an inn yard. Soon the time came when people preferred to see a comedy in which a whole village was upset to find an old lady's needle, than to witness an old fashioned religious play.

In the Days of Will Shakespeare.

During Elizabeth's reign further changes took place in the acting of plays. They were no longer given by craftsmen on their great waggons, but by "common players." The fact that they were usually acted in the courtyard of an inn was an advantage in dry weather, for the yard was surrounded with galleries from which people could see the play easily.

The Tudor rulers disliked "common players," and often in their laws called them "rogues." Queen Elizabeth in 1574 forbade the performances of such shows in "yards" because they were made "the occasion of frays and quarrels, withdrawing of the Queen's subjects from divine service on Sundays and holy days, unthrifty waste of money of the poor and foolish persons, and sundry robberies by picking and cutting of purses."

Shortly after this, an actor named James Burbage, who really loved his calling and worked very hard at it, built a theatre in Holywell Lane, Shoreditch. He called it "The Theatre." A second theatre called "The Curtain" was built soon afterwards, also in Shoreditch.

When the fame of James Burbage and his fine theatre had spread far and wide, a young man, named Will Shakespeare, came to London to seek his fortune. His

father had been a well-to-do citizen of Stratford-on-Avon, in Warwickshire, and Will had early been sent to the Grammar School there. Then his family fell upon evil times, and Will had to earn his own living. All who knew him in London liked him for his kindly and genial temper and his willingness to do any honest work, however lowly. James Burbage met him and gave him a part in one of the plays at "The Theatre." There he did very well, not only acting but writing plays. He began by re-writing old plays, but soon he produced "Love's Labour's Lost," with a plot of his own invention, and within the next twenty years he wrote no less than thirty-six plays, besides poetry. Some of his plays were "comedies," with a happy ending, like "The Merchant of Venice," "A Midsummer-Night's Dream," "As You Like It," "Twelfth Night," and "The Tempest"; others were tragedies in which nearly all the characters were killed, such as "Julius Cæsar," "Hamlet," "Macbeth," and "King Lear," and there were several plays drawn specially from English history.

There was a great difference between common players and such actors as Burbage and Shakespeare. The Queen granted licences to the latter's companies, and, under the name of "The Lord Chamberlain's Company," his actors were sometimes ordered to play before the Court. A few other companies of players were also favoured in this way.

In 1598 "The Theatre" was pulled down. Its materials were carted to Bankside, on the south bank of the Thames, and a new eight-sided theatre was built near the "Bear Gardens" there. It was called "The Globe," because its

sign was a picture of the giant Atlas bearing the globe on his shoulders. There was another theatre in Bankside, called "The Rose," and in 1600 "The Fortune" was built in the northern suburbs, making three theatres for the London public. This "Fortune" was not pulled down until 1819.

Men had been so used to seeing plays in a tavern yard that they made their theatres open to the sky and as much like the yard of an inn as possible. They were built of a stout oak framework, with laths and plaster between the main beams. They were usually eight sided like "The Globe," though "The Fortune" was square.

In the centre was a platform projecting into the "yard" or pit. Here there were no seats, but standing room could be had for a penny, and it was always crowded with the "groundlings," who jostled round the three sides of the platform, exposed to the open air. Galleries went round the sides of the theatre, and the price of a seat varied from twopence to half a crown. Seats could also be had on the stage itself. Sometimes there was a tiled roof over the galleries and a "shadow, or cover, over the stage."

The stage had a curtained recess behind, as you will see in the picture, and this was used for indoor scenes. Overhead there was a balcony, which might represent the walls of a town or castle.

Behind the scenes was the "green room, or "tiring room," where the actors dressed and the prompter stood to give them their cues, over this would be the minstrel's room, and higher still, a loft where thunder could be produced by rolling cannon balls.



A Dudley -

THE GIOEL THFATRE

(Drawn specially for this book by As brose Dudley.)

In the days of Elizabeth there was no scenery and very few properties were used. The scene was thought to be well enough indicated by a bed, a table and stools, or a grassy bank, and the players left a good deal to the imagination, as children do in their games. They wore gorgeous costumes, but it was always that of their own day, even for a play of Bible history or of ancient Rome. The women's parts were taken by boys. These boys must have been very clever actors. Indeed there were companies formed entirely of boys.

Music, Dancing, and the Masque.

To-day, if you have to wait your turn in a barber's shop, or if you are shown into the waiting-room of a doctor or dentist, you will find newspapers and magazines to help you to pass the time. In Elizabethan days there were no newspapers and magazines. Instead, you would have found a lute or a book of airs. Nearly everyone, in those days, could sing to his own accompaniment. Music was a part of everyday life. Every house, unless the people were very poor, had its harp, its lute, or its viol, or all of them.

The lute was an instrument like the mandoline, played with the fingers. The cittern, or cithern, was similar, but it had wires instead of strings and was played with a quill. The viol is known to-day as the violin, and there were also the viola, the viola-da-gamba (now called the violincello), and the bass viol. These four made a "chest of viols," and they are in every orchestra to this day.

The instruments with a keyboard were of two kinds, those which hit a string and those which plucked it. The clavichord was of the first kind. This instrument was like a harp laid flat on the table, and when the key was struck it worked a hammer which hit the string. Of the second kind were the virginals, the spinet, and the harpsichord, which looked like small pianos, in these the key worked a metal point or quill which plucked the string. Queen Elizabeth is said to have played very



VIOLA DA GAMBA



VIRGINALS



BAGPIPES

beautifully upon the virginals, indeed, they got their name from being played by ladies. It was not until 1709 that an instrument maker in Florence invented the piano. The organ was also popular. Very lovely music was written for it, and many of the anthems we have in churches date from this time.

As you would expect dancing was very popular too. At Court they had slow, stately dances, for their clothes were too full and stiff and heavy to allow rapid movement. But they loved to "tread a measure."

On the village green, however, people were livelier. They had "round dances," such as are often danced in schools to day. Some of these were known as "morris," or "Moorish," dances. They had been brought to England in the reign of Edward III, three hundred years earlier, when John of Gaunt visited Spain, which was then in the hands of the Moors. Besides these, a jig or a hornpipe was always in season.

Just about this time a new kind of entertainment became popular at the Court. It was called a "masque," because the characters were masked.

The first description of a masque in England was given in 1512, when Henry VIII was king. We are told that "the King with 11 others were disguised after the manner of Italy, called a maske, a thing not seen afore in England." They "desired the ladies to dance." It was simply a dance in fancy dress, with masks.

Later, the masked characters would act a play in dumb show, as we do to day in charades. Later still, words were written for the play, and there would be songs. The story was usually an allegory. But the most important part was the music and dancing and songs. Beautiful costumes were worn, and by the time of James I scenery was used and the masque became very expensive. In Charles I's reign, £3000 or £4000 was the usual cost, but we hear of one which cost £21,000. In our money this would amount to very much more. Soon after the Restoration they became unpopular, and operas, with trained singers, took their place.



A SCHOOL.
(From a drawing of 1500.)

LESSON-TIME AND PLAY-TIME. At School.

In the days of Will Shakespeare there was no law to compel parents to send their children to school. If the parents were too poor to pay school fees, or if they wanted to set the children to work as early as they could, or if they neglected them altogether, then those children received no schooling. Shakespeare's father, for instance, was a well to do man who took care to send his own sons to school. But he himself could not even write his name. Think what it would be like if you could not read or write, and had to depend only on what was told to you by others. If ever you were asked to sign anything, you would have to get someone to read it to you, and then "make your mark," like this X, before witnesses.

Let us see what happened to the luckier children

Some were entirely trained at home by their parents, or, if they belonged to a rich family, by tutors

There were no children's books at this time, for printing was much too expensive. Children heard their fairy stories at their mothers knee. While they were still very young they were taught to say their alphabet and their numbers, and they knew their prayers and some of the Psalms.

Then they were given a "horn book." This was a piece of wood, rather like a tiny tennis racket, over which was pasted a piece of paper with the alphabet and numerals and the Lords Prayer printed on it. A thin piece of transparent horn was laid over this to protect it, and it was then bound round the edge with brass. It had a wooden handle with a hole in it, through which a ribbon or cord could be passed to hang it round the child's neck.

Young children were sent to an infants' school, known as the 'petties' school,' from the French word "petit" (pronounced pe tée), which means "little." There they learned to read and write.

There were no schools for girls. Unless girls came of a noble family no one bothered to educate them properly. They were brought up to be excellent housewives, however. Their mothers taught them to make beautiful embroidery and lace, to cook and brew, to distil medicines from herbs and perfumes from flowers, and to work in the dairy and among the poultry and the bees. They had lessons in singing, music, and dancing, and sometimes in French.

For the boys there were very good schools. The

hoey king, Edward VI, had founded many grammar-schools, and such famous schools as Eton, Rugby, and Harrow date from this time Winchester was founded earlier In these schools they learned a great deal of Latin Often the lessons would be given in Latin, and there was a rule that boys must not speak in English at all They had no such varied time table as you have History, geography, English, modern languages, nature study, science, art, music, manual training, physical exercises were all left out of the school course But to be well educated, a boy had to know something about them, and so he had many "extras" besides his school work

School was a very dull place, and one can understand the truth of Shakespeare's description, in "As You Like It," of the schoolboy

" with his satchel

And shining morning face, creeping like snail
Unwillingly to school "

Let us follow this boy through his long school day

The schoolroom is dark and draughty In winter it is cold, for there are no fires or other means of heating the room In summer it is stuffy for lack of windows The scholars sit on benches at a long, low desk They have no support for their backs

Here is Shakespeare's brother, Gilbert He begins to empty his satchel There is his pen, made of a goose quill, and the pocket knife with which he sharpens it This quill will last him for many years Now he brings out his ink and paper, for these are too expensive

to be supplied at school. The ink is carried in an ink-horn, well stoppered. Gilbert has a box of sand to sprinkle over his writing, for blotting-paper is not yet invented. He spreads out his "copies," printed sheets of lettering like those in copy-hooks, and soon he will be busy writing.

School begins with prayers. It is only six o'clock in the morning. That seems very early to us, but in those days it was thought lazy to lie in bed as late as five o'clock.

Gilbert and his school-fellows work from six to nine, then, after prayers, they are allowed a quarter of an hour for breakfast. They work again until eleven. This is dinner-time; they have two hours of freedom, and you can imagine they make the most of it. They work again from 1 to 3.30, when they have a quarter of an hour for recreation. School does not end until 5.30, when there are prayers again.

You can imagine that with such a long school-day the boys sometimes became tired and restless, or perhaps they were slow to learn. Then the master would take down his birch rod and give them a flogging. The parents could not object, for the children were in charge of the master for the time, and he was free to do as he liked. Besides, they thought it was good for the children, and they were just as severe themselves.

The master had the help of the older boys, who were called "prepositors," in keeping order. Two prepositors in each form kept the "scroll," or register, for every lesson in the morning and the afternoon.

At boarding schools there were two prepositors to see that the boys behaved well in church, and two others kept order in the choir. Others were chosen to help the slower boys with their Latin.

The Headmaster of Eton in 1530 will tell us, in his own words, the duties of other prepositors or monitors.

"Prepositors in the field when they play, for fighting, rent clothes blue eyes, or such like

"Prepositors for ill kept heads, unwashed faces, foul clothes, and such other

*"If there be any dullard the master giveth his friends warning and putteth him away, that he slander not the school"*¹

At Play.

Boys and girls had not as many playthings in these days as they have now, and those they had were roughly made.

Little girls had their dolls, or "babies," just as they have now, and they learnt to make clothes for them.

Little boys had their drums to beat, and their trumpets, made of a cow's horn, to blow. They had hobby horses, which were often just a broomstick with a horse's head, carved of wood, at one end. They bowled their boops, flew their kites, played battledore and shuttlecock, and whipped their tops, just as boys do to day. There were woolly lambs and other animals, there were whistles too. Every boy had his collection of marbles.

Children—and grown ups too—have always loved to

¹ Leach Educational Charters and Documents "

play with a ball. They played games like rounders, just as you do. They had all sorts of other games, such as leap-frog, prisoner's hase, ninepins, and skipping.

There was "Barley-break" in which every boy took girl partner by the hand. They agreed that there was to be a den in the middle, in which one couple had to stand. At a given word the others ran away, and the two in the den had to try to catch them. When they were nearly caught, the couples were allowed to break and find fresh partners. The two who were caught had to go into the den and become catchers.

In some parts of England an old game, very like this, is called "Shepherds" In this all those who are caught join hands with the catchers until there is a great chain of children chasing the one or two who remain.

"The Mulberry Bush," "Nuts in May," "Hunt the Slipper," and "Blind-man's Buff" were old games in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and we play them yet.

There were stalls for sweets, too, though there was not such a great choice as children have nowadays. There were peppermint drops and strings of brown and white sugar-candy, as well as ginger and fruits coated with glistening sugar. Then there was gilt gingerbread, which was old-fashioned even in Tudor times. It has given us a quaint expression. When we mean to say that the charm has gone from a thing we say: "That takes the gilt off the gingerbread."

Time - Chart.

A.D. 1603 to 1625.

YEAR.	BRITISH HISTORY		GENERAL HISTORY
	Political	Social and Industrial	
1603	James VI of Scotland becomes James I of the United Kingdom Hampton Court Conference 1604	The king's taxes—tunnage and poundage monopolies impositions, and others—make trouble with Parliament	
1605	Gunpowder Plot 1605 Plantation of Ulster 1608 1611	Birth of Milton, 1608	Settlements in Virginia 1607 Champlain settles in Quebec (for French), 1608
1610	Rule of bishops in Scotland, 1612	Authorised version of the Bible, 1611	Galileo invents new form of Telescope 1609 Discovers facts about Sun, Moon, Planets, and Stars. Bermuda an English colony, 1612
1615	Execution of Raleigh 1618	Death of Shakespeare, 1616	Raleigh's expedition to find gold in Guiana, 1616 18 'Thirty Years War' between Protestants and Roman Catholics of Germany, 1618-48 <i>The Mayflower</i> , 1620
1620	Impeachment of Bacon, Lord Chancellor, 1621 Parliament a Protestation, 1621		
1625	Death of James I		

PART II.

THE FIRST OF THE STEWART
LINE IN ENGLAND.

"The Divine Right of Kings."

Queen Elizabeth lived to be an old woman of seventy. When at last she died, in 1603, Englishmen looked anxiously to Scotland, where the son of the unhappy Mary Stewart was reigning as James VI. This was the man who was to rule in England as James I. They had little hope that he would govern them as well as their beloved Queen had done. Still he was a Protestant, and under his rule England and Scotland would be at peace with each other.

When James arrived in England his new subjects could not help feeling disappointed. There was nothing handsome or dignified about him. He had a great deal of learning, but not much sense, and this is what the King of France meant by calling him "the wisest fool in Christendom."

The truth was that this king never understood his new subjects. He soon began to talk about the "Divine Right of Kings." By this he meant that a king, after he had been anointed with the holy oils at his coronation, became a sacred being. "It is," he declared, "high contempt in a subject to dispute what a king can do, or to say that a king cannot do this and that." Englishmen

resented this idea. They had been used to a firm rule and were willing to obey their king. But such foolish talk made them angry.

James went on insisting on his "divine right" and making his people uneasy. Queen Elizabeth would never have been so tactless. She knew that Englishmen, loyal as they were, would not allow their liberty to be threatened, four hundred years ago they had taught King John that lesson, when they made him grant Magna Charta in 1215. It is true that James had the support of the Church, which applied the new idea to itself and talked about the "divine right" of bishops.

For a considerable time some of the Protestants had felt so strongly against the Roman Catholics that they wanted the Church of England to be completely altered, so that there would be not the slightest resemblance to the Roman Church. These were the "Puritans," of whom mention has already been made. In 1604 they sent four of their leaders to meet the King and his churchmen at the Hampton Court Conference. Only one benefit came of this meeting, and that was the most important thing that happened in James's reign. The Bible was re-written, and the improved rendering was known as the *Authorised Version*—that is, the version authorised by the King in 1611. So beautiful was the language of it that it is used even to this day.

At the beginning of the reign there were two plots against James by Roman Catholics. Nothing came of them, except, as you have seen, the imprisonment of Sir Walter Raleigh. But in 1605 was hatched the Gunpowder Plot as it afterwards was called. A number of

Roman Catholic gentlemen, angry because of the persecution of their religion, arranged to blow up the Houses of Parliament on the Fifth of November, when the King would be present, and then to set up a Roman Catholic government. Two tons of gunpowder were packed in barrels in a cellar underneath the House of Lords. One of the conspirators, however, gave the warning to his brother-in-law, who was to have been in the House. The night before the day on which Parliament was to meet, the cellars were searched and a soldier named Guy Fawkes was captured there. He and the rest of the conspirators were put to death. You can imagine how this narrow escape made Protestants hate the Roman Catholics more than ever, and very hard laws were passed against them. To this day the cellars are searched immediately before the opening of a new session in Parliament.

King and Parliament.

James did not get on well with his Parliament. He was continually making demands on Parliament for more and more money, and this, of course, had to be raised by taxing the people. Much of this money he wasted on his favourites and on pleasures.

The King's income came from his own "crown lands" and from the dues which were paid to him under the old feudal system. He also had the right to levy a tax, or "duty," on various goods imported or exported. A certain sum was paid on every tun of wine imported

and on every pound sterling worth of dry goods imported or exported. The tax was called "tunnage and poundage."

To add to this income, James began to levy extra duties, called "impositions," on all kinds of merchandise. In return for sums of money he also granted to certain merchants or companies the sole right of producing certain articles, with the result that, as there was no competition, these merchants could sell at what price they liked. By granting these "monopolies," as they were called, the King obtained much money. He got still more by selling titles to rich men; it cost more than £1000 to be made a Baronet, and in those days £1 was worth many times more than it is now. James also ordered his officers to collect sums of money, known as "benevolences," from persons able to afford such. These were supposed to be voluntary gifts but were really extortions.

Naturally Parliament became indignant, especially as with all the additions to his income, James was spending more in time of peace than Elizabeth had spent in time of war. In 1621 it protested against this taxation. It also claimed an old right to prosecute, or "impeach," any of the king's ministers who might be dishonest, and did impeach the Lord Chancellor. Further, it sent a petition to the King, begging that Prince Charles might not marry a Spanish princess, as he seemed about to do, but one of "our own religion." James was very angry, and forbade Parliament "henceforth not to meddle with anything that concerns our Government or deep matters of State." In return, Parliament drew up a Protestation maintaining its freedom of speech. James had power to "dissolve" Parliament, or forbid it to meet, and he did

this at once. He sent for their Journal and tore out the Protestation with his own hands. But he had not crushed the spirit of his people so easily.

England and Other Nations.

James was careful to avoid war with other countries. England had no regular army at this time, she trusted entirely to her fleet. When there was need for fighting on land she had to rely on volunteers, who had often had no experience at all. This was one reason why England took very little part in wars abroad.

The King had a daughter, Elizabeth, so beautiful that she was known as the "Queen of Hearts." He gave her in marriage to a Protestant prince in Germany, Frederick the Elector Palatine. Afterwards this prince was in conflict with the Roman Catholics of Germany, who were helped by the King of Spain. Instead of sending an army to support the Protestants, as Elizabeth might have done, James tried to act as peace maker. He even thought, as we have already seen, of arranging a marriage between his son Charles and the daughter of the King of Spain. For years he tried to bring this about, thinking that it would help to keep peace in Europe.

At last, in 1623 Charles took it into his head to go to Spain with his friend, George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham. This Buckingham was an attractive but rather foolish young man, who was a great favourite with the King. Their visit was a failure, and for that very reason Charles on his return was welcomed with bonfires and



A CAVALIER FAMILY.

great glee. However, Charles married the daughter of another Roman Catholic king; she was Henrietta Maria of France.

For Reading and Reference.

- | | |
|---|---|
| Guy Fawkes— <i>Ainsworth, Har-
rison</i> | Fortunes of Nigel— <i>Scott, Sir
Walter.</i> |
| Star Chamber— <i>Ainsworth, Har-
rison.</i> | My Lady Rotha (Thirty Years'
War)— <i>Weyman, Stanley J.</i> |
| Arabella Stuart— <i>James, G. P. R.</i> | |

COSTUME OF THE PERIOD.

When Charles married Henrietta Maria, daughter of the French king, she and her handsome young husband soon began to set a different fashion in dress. Ruffs, which had been worn so long by men and women, gave place to big lace collars worn with graceful cuffs to match.



A PURITAN FAMILY

Women's skirts were still very wide. They were no longer stretched on a frame, however, but fell in graceful folds. Women did their hair more simply. It was sometimes coiled at the back, and fell in pretty ringlets over each ear.

Men, too, dressed more gracefully. They wore a short coat, falling just below the hips and belted at the waist, with a strap which passed over the right shoulder and down to the left side, where it held a sword. Knee breeches and nether-stocks (or stockings) were still fashionable, but without padding. Out of doors a cloak was worn, together with gauntlet gloves and a largo soft hat. As you see, the man's hair, too, is long and curling.

If you look at the pictures above, you will see that children were dressed like grown-up people. The

little girl has a gown of rich brocade reaching to the ground. It has a pointed bodice. Her cuffs and collar are of fine pointed lace.

The boy's clothes are of satin. His little coat and the sides of his trousers are heavily trimmed with gold lace, and you notice that his dainty white shirt is peeping through slots cut in his coat. His stockings are of silk, and his high heeled shoes are finished off with rosettes to match the bows at his knees. His collar and cuffs are like those of the little girl, and his cloak is a fine flowing one, but much too heavy to let him play as boys do nowadays.

The lace, made by English country people in the Midlands and the south, was coarse and clumsy when compared with that made in Flanders and France. While these fashions lasted, much foreign lace was brought into England, but we shall see later how foreigners at last came to settle in England, and how they taught the English workers their fine art.

You must not think that everyone dressed in the fashionable way. The Puritans had always thought that men should dress plainly.

As time went on and there grew a still greater difference between the Puritans and the Church of England, the more extreme of the Puritans began to dress in a way which set them apart. The men wore plain, rough clothes of a dull drab colour, generally black. They had no lace at neck and wrist, only plain linen cuffs and collar. Hat, stockings, and shoes were all drab, without more trimming than a plain buckle on shoe or hat band. The women dressed in a simple gown,

generally of grey, or some other dull tone. They, too, wore linen cuffs, and a large collar fastened modestly up to the throat. They are usually pictured wearing a white apron and a dainty white cap.

Puritans had not always dressed differently from other people. Although they had never worn clothes of extreme cut or gaudy colouring, many of them had been gracefully and well dressed. The men used to have their hair long, according to the fashion. It was only when their differences with the churchmen grew more bitter that they cut their hair short. They were then called Roundheads. Even then, for all their dull appearance, Puritans loved fine underclothing. The men's shirts and the women's smocks were of the finest linen and beautifully embroidered.



COACH OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

(From a seventeenth-century engraving by John Dunstall.)

Time-Chart.

A.D. 1625 to 1649.

YEAR.	POLITICAL HISTORY		SOCIAL AND GENERAL
	English	Scottish	
1625	Charles I, King		Cadiz, 1625
	Petition of Right, 1628		Expedition against France, 1627
1630	"Eleven Years' Tyranny," 1629-40		William Harvey Circulation of the Blood, 1628
	Strafford and Laud		Linen industry in Ireland
1635	John Hampden refuses to pay ship-money, 1637	New Service Book in Scotland, 1637	Puritans leave England, 1628-40
		National Covenant, 1638.	Massachusetts, 1628-33
1640	Long Parliament	Bishops' Wars, 1639-40	Maryland, 1632
	Grand Remonstrance, 1641	(Charles defeated)	Strafford in Ireland, 1633-40
	Attempted arrest of five members, 1642	Scots send help to Parliament, 1643	Irish Rebellion, 1641-52
	Outbreak of Civil War, 1642.	(Solemn League and Covenant)	French settled in Montreal, 1642
1645	Battle of Marston Moor, 1644	Montrose raises army for King in Scotland, 1644-5	
	Battle of Naseby, 1645		
	(Charles surrenders to Scots, 1646, and to Parliament		
	Captured by army, 1647.	Second Civil War, Scots help King, 1648	
	Execution of King, 1649		

STORM BREWING

A New Middle Class.

When James I died in 1625, his son Charles had to face an England very different from that of Elizabeth. The people were beginning to claim a greater share in the government of their country. A new middle class had arisen, including country gentry who were descended from the younger sons of nobles, merchants who had formed the early middle class of a century ago, scholars, lawyers, doctors, and the sons of poor families which had prospered. This great middle class was too active and independent to be content with watching the King and his ministers rule them. They wanted a voice in the management of affairs, and through Parliament they meant to get it. James had tried their patience severely. Now they had to deal with his son.

Charles I was much more attractive than James. He was handsome, graceful, and accomplished, a thorough gentleman and a lover of fine pictures and books. He could easily have held the loyalty of all his subjects if only they could have trusted him.

From the beginning there was still the same trouble over the King's need of money and the people's resentment against the extra taxes. Charles, however, needed more money than ever. A fleet was sent out to sack Cadiz, as Drake had done, and capture the Spanish treasure ships, but it was a failure, and Buckingham, the King's chief friend, was blamed for it by Parliament.

Charles was very angry. "I would not have the House to question my servants, much less one so near to me," he said. Parliament, led by Sir John Eliot, replied by impeaching Buckingham. At the news, Charles dissolved Parliament. Tempers were rising, even at this early stage.

When James had arranged for Charles to marry a French princess, he had promised to lend some ships to France. Now Charles had to carry out this promise, and the ships were used against the Huguenots, or Protestants of France. Englishmen were furious, and soon afterwards there was war between the two countries. Buckingham led another expedition against France, but he had to return unsuccessful. At Portsmouth he was stabbed to the heart by a disappointed soldier and the whole nation rejoiced. For many years afterwards England took no further part in wars abroad.

The Petition of Right and "The Eleven Years' Tyranny."

In 1628, the year of Buckingham's death, Charles had to summon another Parliament. He began by demanding money and declaring that he intended to have it. "Take not this as a threat," he said, "for I scorn to threaten any but my equals." This unwise speech set the House against him, and when he imprisoned five knights who had refused to pay him a forced loan, Parliament determined to resist him. They drew up

a *Petition of Right*, declaring that the extra taxes were illegal unless Parliament had agreed to them, and that no one must be imprisoned without good reason. Charles had to consent, but he did not keep his word.

Parliament was also deeply concerned about religious affairs. Charles and his Court belonged to the High Church party, which most resembled the Roman Church. Parliament was strictly Protestant. To strengthen their position and ensure that Protestantism would predominate in the country they declared that there must be no changes in religion without their consent. Charles instantly dissolved this brave Parliament and sent Sir John Eliot, the leader of the House, to the Tower, where he died. But Englishmen were afterwards to remember Eliot's words—"None have ever gone about to break Parliaments but in the end Parliaments have broken them."

Charles ruled without a Parliament for eleven years, known as "The Eleven Years' Tyranny." He had two chief advisers—Thomas Wentworth, whom he made Earl of Strafford, and William Laud, Bishop of London, who became Archbishop of Canterbury. Strafford was Lord-Deputy of Ireland for many years. His great friend was Laud, who did good service in the cause of education, many valuable reforms at Oxford University being due to him. In some ways, however, he was cruel.


Charles continued to use the new methods of obtaining money which had been used by James I. In addition to these impositions, monopolies, and benevolences, he compelled all landowners whose estates were worth more than £40 a year to become knights and pay the fees appointed,

or else he fined heavily Nobles and others whose fore fathers had pushed their boundaries into the Crown forests now had to pay heavy penalties

Charles decided to add more ships to his navy To do so he levied another tax, called 'ship money, to be paid by the sea coast towns This dated back to Anglo Saxon times, but it had been forgotten The King found that he obtained so much money by it that he levied it again, this time on the inland towns as well In 1637 he levied it a third time, and on this occasion John Hampden, a squire from Buckinghamshire, refused to pay it Hampden was tried before twelve judges, five decided in his favour and seven against him Although he lost his case, the speeches of his lawyers spread all over England

Only a few months earlier, England had been indignant at one of Laud's actions Three Puritans, for writing against the rule of bishops, were sentenced to have their ears cut off publicly, to be fined £5000, and to be imprisoned for life The people of London came out in crowds and scattered flowers before them, and there was a fierce outcry

In this year, 1637, there was trouble in Scotland, too The Scots determined to maintain their form of religion against Laud, and in the following year signed the *National Covenant* In 1639 they began a war known as the *Bishops' War*, because it was caused by the attempt to set up in the Scottish Church a rule of bishops in place of their Presbyterian government The royal forces were defeated and the King summoned Parliament As they would not give him money, he dissolved this



Parliament after three weeks, and it was therefore called the Short Parliament. The King then sent for Strafford from Ireland, and next year the *Second Bishops' War* took place. The Scots invaded England in spite of Strafford, and for ten months they refused to leave. Then Charles agreed to everything they wished, and had to pay their expenses during the ten months at the rate of £850 a day.

Parliament Makes a Stand.

Faced with such an enormous demand for money, Charles was forced to summon another Parliament in 1640. Englishmen had now made up their minds that some check must be put on the King's power, and the Parliament of 1640 began by making its own position safe. It passed laws declaring that Parliament must be summoned every three years, and must never be dissolved except with its own consent. It stopped ship money and the knighthood fines, and put an end to courts like the Star Chamber, where the King had been able to hold private trials and punish people as he liked.

Further, this Parliament dared to impeach the King's advisers, even Archbishop Laud and the great Strafford. Strafford they called "Black Tom Tyrant," and they made a special effort to have him put to death in 1641. The King might have forbidden it, but he was afraid that even the Queen would be impeached unless he gave way, and so at last he consented. Strafford went bravely

to his execution. "Put not your trust in princes," he said. Laud suffered a like fate four years later.

Soon after Strafford's execution a rebellion broke out in Ireland, where the people were Roman Catholics. Many folks were more suspicious than ever of the Roman Catholics in England, and of the High Church party which they believed to be friendly towards them. Parliament drew up a list of all the actions of Charles and his ministers which they thought to be wrong. This was called the Grand Remonstrance, because they were remonstrating with the King, or reproving him. They went on to say that the Church must be made more Protestant, and that in future the King's advisers should be chosen subject to Parliament's consent.

Now Charles decided to act boldly. With a company of his soldiers he marched down to the House of Commons to arrest the five members whom he thought to be at the root of the trouble. If he had captured them it would have been a clever move. They had been warned beforehand, however, and he found that "the birds had flown." Parliament deeply resented this attack on Members of Parliament in a place where free speech should be allowed.

Matters had gone so far that war could no longer be avoided, and in August 1642 the Great Civil War began, the King being at Nottingham.

Time-Chart.

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A.D. 1649 to 1689.

YEAR.	BRITISH HISTORY		GENERAL HISTORY
	Political.	Social and Industrial	
1649	Commonwealth Charles I. executed Battle of Dunbar, 1650 Battle of Worcester, 1651 Escape of Prince Charles	Navigation Act, 1651	Cromwell in Ireland 1649-50
1650			Dutch War, 1652-4
1655	Protectorate Cromwell, Protector, 1653 Death of Cromwell, 1658		Capture of Jamaica, 1655
			War with Spain, 1656
1660	Restoration. Charles II, 1660 Clarendon, chief minister Covenanters in Scotland	Clarendon Code (1660-67) against Dissenters John Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress' Great Plague, 1665 Fire of London, 1666 London re-built "Diaries" of Pepys and Evelyn	Bombay and Tangier become English possessions, 1662
			Sale of Dunkirk, 1662
1665	Fall of Clarendon, 1667	Colony of Carolina, 1663	Second Dutch War, 1665-67
1670	Titus Oates, 1678	Victory off Lowestoft, 1665	Dutch fleet in Thames, 1667
1675	Habeas Corpus Act, 1679	Rock salt found in Cheshire	Hudson Bay Coy. formed, 1670
1680	James II Monmouth's Rebellion, 1685	Death of Milton Silk weavers from France	Secret Treaty of Dover, 1670
1685	Argyll's Rebellion, 1685	Huguenots bring improved methods to other industries	Third Dutch War, 1672-74
1689	Declaration of Indulgence, 1687 The Seven Bishops, 1688 William and Mary King and Queen	Measures to secure toleration for Catholics, 1685-88 Newton publishes his discovery of the Laws of Gravitation	Colony of Pennsylvania, 1681

HOW THE STORM BROKE.

Cavalier and Roundhead.

At this time there were many who quite genuinely believed in the "Divine Right of Kings," and many more who simply thought that, if people disobeyed the King, they would soon rebel against all authority, so that peace and order would be impossible. Most of the nobles and gentry supported the King, and so, too, did the High Church party. On the other hand, the great middle class, who were strongly Protestant, felt that the King must be taught a lesson. They wished him no harm if he could only learn that a king cannot rule in England without allowing a share of the government to his people through Parliament.

The Royalists, or Cavaliers, at the outbreak of war, held rather more of England than the Parliamentarians did. But London and most of the big towns were on Parliament's side, together with the navy, so that two thirds of the population and three quarters of the wealth of the country was theirs. Their foot soldiers were better trained, but the Royalists had the better cavalry, hence the name "Cavaliers." Parliament's men were nicknamed "Roundheads," because they were nearly all Puritans and wore their hair cut short.

At first the King was successful. In 1642 he marched from the Midlands down to London but, within a few miles of the city, he was forced to retreat. Next year no less than three Royalist armies began to march

towards London from different directions, and Parliament felt so anxious that it very nearly surrendered to the King. Just at this critical moment the Scots agreed to send help to the Parliamentarians in return for a promise, known as the *Solemn League and Covenant*, that in future the Church of England should be reformed "according to the word of God and the example of the best reformed Churches," by which they meant their own Presbyterian Church. An army of 20,000 Scots was sent, and this turned the tide against the King. The Royalists, in their turn, brought over an army of Irish, but these were half-savage, untamed men, so that more harm than good was done.

So far the strength of the Royalists had been in their cavalry, led by the King's nephew, Prince Rupert, who was a son of that Elizabeth, "Queen of Hearts," whom you remember. This gallant prince now met his match in Oliver Cromwell, a farmer of Huntingdon, who trained a force of cavalry, known as "Cromwell's Ironsides," for the Parliamentarians. It was due to Cromwell that, in 1644, Parliament won the Battle of Marston Moor, in Yorkshire. This is his own account of it:

"We never charged but we routed the enemy.

"The left wing, which I commanded, being our own force, saving a few Scots in our rear, beat all the prince's horse, and God made them stubble to our swords. We charged their regiments of foot and routed all we charged."

After this Parliament strengthened its army, giving Cromwell the command of its cavalry. The New Model

Army, as it was now called, was well trained and well paid, and it wore a scarlet uniform. Until then the different armies had worn scarves or rosettes to show which was which. In 1645 Cromwell again won the victory for Parliament at the battle of Naseby, which brought the war to an end.

Charles and the Scots.

Meanwhile, in Scotland, the Marquis of Montrose had gathered an army to help Charles. He won victory after victory, and intended to march into England with 20,000 men, as many as the Presbyterians had sent to help Parliament. After Naseby, however, this same Presbyterian army was free to return north, and they defeated Montrose. He escaped to the Continent, but he was soon back again, and in 1650 he was captured and executed.

In 1646 the King himself surrendered to the Scots rather than submit to Parliament. But when urged to sign the Covenant in return for the protection of the Scots, he could not bring himself to do it. The Scots therefore refused their support, and the King was lodged by Parliament in Holmby House, in Northamptonshire.

Parliament itself was by this time no longer united. Moderate Englishmen wanted the King to be restored, with such precautions that he could never regain his former power. A small group wanted no king at all. It was difficult to know how to arrange matters, and Charles was, unfortunately, not trustworthy. He plotted with all parties, agreeing to many things that he never

meant to carry out. The old religious difficulty remained, and now there was also trouble with the Scots, who were insisting on Presbyterianism.

The New Model Army became yet more discontented, because Parliament had not paid them for many weeks. The army now seized the King, and he was confined ultimately in Carisbrooke Castle, in the Isle of Wight. While there he managed to enlist the support of the Scots by promising to make England Presbyterian for three years.

As a result, a Second Civil War broke out in 1648.

The Last Picture.

The Royalists were defeated, and Cromwell and his army made up their minds that the King must be brought to account. A certain Colonel Pride, with his musketeers, took up his station at the door of the House of Commons and prevented most of the Members from entering. After "Pride's Purge," as it is called, the rest of the House decided to bring the King to trial. He was brought to London and tried in Westminster Hall, and was found guilty of treason against Parliament and people.

Thus, on 30th January 1649, a king of England came to the scaffold. He never seemed so brave and lovable as in his last moments. "I go," he said, "from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where I shall have no trouble to fear." Then, with a word of farewell, he laid his head on the block. A spectator tells us that from the thousands in W . . .

156 How a King's Son Escaped His Enemies

"such a groan arose as I have never heard before and desire I may never hear again."

As his coffin was carried to burial the snowflakes were drifting down, and men called him "The White King." Others used to speak of him as "The Martyr King." In years to come a statue of him was erected at Charing Cross, mounted on horseback, looking towards Whitehall.

The poet, Marvell, who was a young man at the time, and served Parliament, wrote these lines :

"He nothing common did or mean
Upon that memorable scene,
But with his keener eye
The axe's edge did try.

"Nor called the gods with vulgar spite
To vindicate his helpless right,
But bowed his comely head
Down, as upon a bed."

How a King's Son Escaped His Enemies.

(As described by SAMUEL PEPTS.)

For some years Ireland had been seething in rebellion, and, after the King's death, it was necessary for Cromwell to cross to the Green Isle and restore order.

Directly after his return to England, in 1650, he met the forces of the King's eldest son, Prince Charles, who had landed in Scotland. Cromwell marched north to

Dunbar and won a great victory against the Scots. Still Charles did not lose heart. He came down into England next year, but Cromwell was ready for him again and defeated him at Worcester, and he had many thrilling adventures before he got safely out of England. We learn something about them from a Londoner named Samuel Pepys,¹ who wrote a famous *Diary*. Pepys had heard them from Charles himself, on his way back to England, years afterwards.

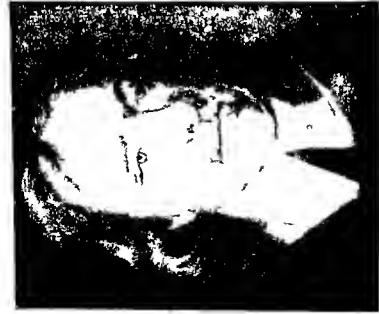
"Upon the Quarter deck the king fell into dis-
"course of his escape from Worcester, where it
"made me ready to weep to hear the stories that he
"told of his difficulties that he had passed through,
"as his travelling four days and three nights on
"foot, every step up to his knees in dirt, with nothing
"but a green coat and a pair of country breeches on,
"and a pair of country shoes that made him so sore
"all over his feet, that he could scarcely stir.

"Yet he was forced to run away from a miller
"and other company, that took them for rogues.

"His sitting at table at one place where the
"master of the house, that had not seen him in eight
"years, did know him, but kept it private, when at
"the same table there was one that had been of his
"own regiment at Worcester, could not know him,
"but made him drink the king's health, and said
"that the king was at least four fingers higher than
"he.

"At another place, he was by some servants of

¹ Pronounced Peep's.



(Po n t b j Sa v l C op r S dn y Sna z Co ge Cu ab dge)
 (FROM ELL



(Po tra t b j l an D le)
 (CARLOS I

"the house, made to drink, that they might know
 "that he was not a Roundhead, which they swore
 "he was.

"In another place, at his inn, the master of the
 "house, as the king was standing with his hands
 "upon the back of a chair by the fireside, kneeled
 "down and kissed his hand, privately saying, that
 "he would not ask him who he was, but bid God
 "bless him whither he was going.

"Then the difficulties in getting a boat to get
 "into France . . .

"At Rouen he looked so poorly that the people
 "went into the rooms before he went away, to see
 "whether he had not stole something or other."

For Reading and Reference.

Boscobel—*Ainsicorth, W. Har-*
rison

In High Places—*Braddon, Miss*

In the King's Service—*Brereton,*
Capt

Memoirs of a Cavalier—*Defoe,*
Daniel

White Gauntlet—*Reid, Mayne*

Holmby House—*Melville, G. J.*
Whyte.

John Inglesant—*Shorthouse, J. H.*

John Burnet of Barns—*Buchan, J.*

Lochinvar—*Crockett, S R*

Men of Moss Hags—*Crockett, S R*

Scottish Cavaliers—*Grant, J*

Gowrie—*James, G P R*

John Splendid—*Munro, N.*

Legend of Montrose—*Scott, Sir*
Walter

Old Mortality—*Scott, Sir Walter.*

THE PURITAN RULE.

Two Pictures of Oliver Cromwell.

Let us now look more closely at Cromwell, the man who, more than any other, brought about the death of the King.

Cromwell was deeply religious, and at the same time practical, as you would guess from his advice to his troops when about to cross a river—"Put your trust in God, but be sure to see that your powder is dry." He was a steadfast and, on the whole, a lovable figure. When he joined the cavalry before Naseby, they gave a joyful shout, "Ironsides come to head us!"

I.

This is what Lord Clarendon, a Royalist, wrote about the great man who was to rule England as Lord Protector.

"When Cromwell appeared first in the Parliament he seemed to have none of those talents which used to draw to him the affections of the standers-by : yet he grew into place and authority.

"After he was made Protector he consulted with very few upon any action of importance, nor spoke of any undertaking he had decided upon with more than those who were to have principal parts in the carrying out of it, nor to them sooner than was quite needful.

"What he had once made up his mind to do—in which he was not rash—he would not be turned from it, nor allow any opposition of his power and authority, but forced obedience from those who were not willing to yield it.

"He made Westminster Hall¹ as obedient to his commands as any of the rest of his quarters. Towards those who complied with his good pleasure, and courted his protection, he used a wonderful kindness, generosity, and bounty. "

"But his greatness at home was but a shadow of the glory he had abroad. It was hard to discover which feared him most, France, Spain, or the Low Countries, where his friendship would be bought at whatever price he asked.

"*He was not a man of blood.* And it was said, that in the council of officers it was more than once proposed that there might be a general killing of all the royal party as the only way to make the government safe, but Cromwell would *never consent to it.*"

II.

Two hundred years later a great author, named Thomas Carlyle, wrote of Cromwell:

"Oliver's life at St. Ives and Ely, as a sober hard-working farmer, is it not altogether as that of a true and devout man?

"He has given up the world and its ways. He tills the earth; he reads his Bible; daily gathers his servants round him to worship God. The man's hopes, I do believe, were fixed on the other Higher World. He courts no notice: what could notice here do for him?

¹ Parliament then met in Westminster Hall.

"In this way he has lived till past forty ; old age
"is now in view of him.

"His successes in Parliament, his successes through
"the war, are honest successes of a brave man, who
"has more decision in the heart of him than other
"men. Nor will his part in the King's death make
"us condemn him. It is a stern business killing of
"a king ! Once at war, you have made wager of
"battle with him : *it is he to die, or else you.*

"The unhappy Charles shows himself a man who
"could not, and would not *understand* : whose *word*
"did not at all show his *thought*. Forsaken there,
"of all but the *name* of kingship, he still fancies that
"he might play off party against party, and smuggle
"himself into his old power by deceiving both.

"Alas ! They both *discovered* that he was deceiv-
"ing them. A man whose word will not inform
"you, at all, what he *means*, is not a man you can
"bargain with.

"The successes of Cromwell seem to me a very
"natural thing ! Since he was not shot in battle,
"they were certain to happen. The Lord General
"Cromwell, 'Commander-in-chief of all the forces
"raised and to be raised,' he sees himself, at this
"moment, as it were, the only Authority left in
"England ; nothing between England and utter
"Disorder but him alone. He decides that he will
"accept the Protectorship."

(Adapted from *The Hero as King*, by THOMAS CARLYLE.)

How a Puritan Farmer made England Great.

After the execution of Charles England was no longer a kingdom but a *Commonwealth*, ruled by *Parliament*. The famous *Parliament* of 1640 had never been broken up, and so it had been called the *Long Parliament*. But its numbers had so dwindled that it was now known as the "*Rump*," or tail-end of a *Parliament*. All the more moderate members, who had wanted the King to be restored, were kept out of it, and matters were in the hands of a few fierce and narrow-minded men. They could pass any laws they wanted and, by one of their own laws, no one had power to dissolve them. Men were just as discontented as they had been under the King's rule.

It was Cromwell who got rid of this *Parliament*, after he had put down the Irish rebellion, defeated the Scots, and driven Prince Charles out of the country. "In plain black clothes and grey worsted stockings," he came striding into the House of Commons and soundly scolded the members. Then he stamped his foot, and a troop of soldiers entered and began to clear the House. On a table lay the mace, in token of *Parliament's* authority. Lifting it up he cried, "What shall we do with this hauble? Take it away!" and a soldier removed it. The great doors were locked and Cromwell went away with the key in his pocket. By way of a joke, someone chalked up outside, "This House to let."

Soon afterwards Cromwell was chosen to be Protector.

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He was to have the chief authority, but subject to a council. Later they would have made him King but he refused.

Clarendon speaks truly of "the glory that he had abroad." England was as much respected as she had been in the days of Elizabeth.

Cromwell did much to help trade. You remember that Henry VII. had ordered that wines from Gascony should be carried in English ships. In 1651 Parliament had passed a *Navigation Act*, declaring that all goods brought to England must come either in English ships or, with certain exceptions, in the ships of the country where they were produced. This Act was meant as a help to English shipping. It very much offended the Dutch, who had been accustomed to carrying the goods of every nation. War broke out in 1652.

The English navy had been put into good order, and Cromwell chose a brave soldier, named George Blake, to be Admiral. Blake proved himself a match even for the famous Dutch Admiral, Van Tromp. *Van Tromp, it is said, fastened a broom to his mast and declared that he would sweep the English from the seas. But, in 1653, Blake defeated him near Portland in a battle which lasted three days. The story goes that he promptly hoisted a whip to show that he had whipped the Dutchman from the seas. Dutch ships dared not venture into the Channel after this.

England then made friendly treaties with Denmark, Sweden, and Portugal.

Spain, however, would not grant freedom of trade to England because of their religious differences. As a

How a Puritan Farmer made England Great 165

result of the dispute Cromwell sent a force to attack the Spanish West Indies. Jamaica was captured and became an English colony in 1655.

In 1656 France and England together declared war on Spain. The English fleet destroyed some Spanish treasure-ships near Cadiz, and, seven months later, Admiral Blake blew up the whole of the Spanish treasure-fleet at Santa Cruz, in Teneriffe, near the coast of Africa.

Afterwards Cromwell sent 6000 of his Ironsides to fight for the French near Dunkirk. Many English Royalists were fighting against them on the side of Spain. Again the Ironsides won, and earned the nickname of "the Immortals." Dunkirk now became an English town.

In 1655 Cromwell heard that in Savoy, which lay to the south-east of France, the Duke had ordered his soldiers to put the Protestants to death. Cromwell sent word to the King of France that this must be stopped, and he sent £2000 out of his own purse to help those who had been made homeless.

In writing to kings of other countries this rough soldier had the help of the great poet, John Milton. Cromwell knew *what* should be said, and Milton knew best *how* to say it. Milton, who was a Puritan, has left us a poem which tells of the Protestants of Savoy as he thought of them :

"Avenge, O Lord, Thy slaughtered saints, whose bones
Lie scattered on the Alpine mountains cold."

In 1658 Cromwell was a dying man. "I would be

willing to live," he said, "to be further serviceable to God and His people, but my work is done On 3rd September, the date of his victories at Dunbar and Worcester, the great Protector passed away Let us again read the words of Carlyle

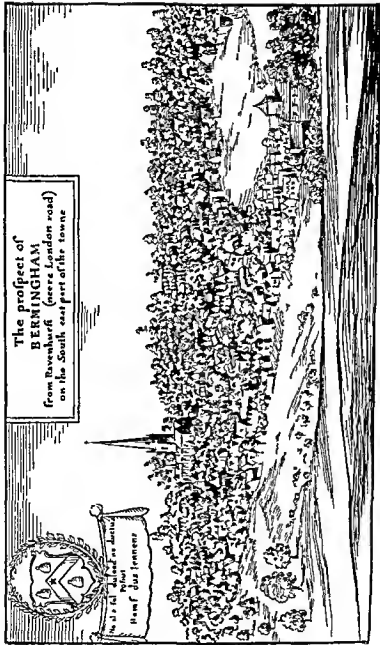
"What had this man gained? He had a life of
 "sore strife and toil to his last day Peace to him
 "Did he not, in spite of all, do much for us? We
 "walk smoothly over his great, rough, heroic life
 "Let the hero rest"

After Cromwell's death his son Richard, a feeble young man, was made Protector But he could not command the unruly army and he soon resigned No one knew what to expect General Monk, Oliver's Commander in Chief in Scotland, now gathered his forces together and marched to London, every eye anxiously turned to him, for with him, it was recognised, lay the destiny of the nation There, he caused a Convention to be summoned (for only the king could summon "Parliament"), which sent an invitation to Charles "to return to the exercise of his kingly office

A Puritan Poet.

The inspiring days of Queen Elizabeth had called forth our greatest poet and dramatist, William Shakespeare Puritan days brought their poet also His name was John Milton

As a boy he was very quick to learn and studied very hard At an early age his father, a man who loved



The prospect of
BIRMINGHAM
from Ravenhurst (near London road)
on the South east part of the towne

BIRMINGHAM IN 1656

(From an old engraving by Hollar for Dugdale's "Baronetage.")

poetry and music, sent him to Christ's College, in the University of Cambridge

Ever since his fifteenth year Milton had been writing poetry. He longed to write "such a poem as the world would not willingly let die" so he decided to give himself up to study and the practice of writing. His father was rich enough to afford it.

When Milton left the university he lived quietly in his father's country house writing his beautiful, serious poems. Although he was a Puritan there was nothing gloomy about him. He loved the joys of the country side, the healthy, contented life in the open air, amidst lovely scenery and simple folk. The merry hells, the dancing on the village green, and the fire side stories warmed his heart, and he delighted in plays and music. In more solemn mood, the quiet and the "dim religious light" of a church attracted him, Puritan as he was.

In these peaceful days Milton wrote his "Lycidas," a lovely poem in memory of a college friend who had been drowned. He also wrote a masque called "Comus," to be acted by the young Lord Brackley and his brother and sister at Ludlow Castle. Henry Lawes, a famous musician, who was Milton's friend, wrote the music and took part in the acting. 'Comus' is the story of a lady lost in a wood and of her escape from a magician.

Afterwards Milton travelled abroad, as most well to do young men did in those days to finish his education. He spent over a year in Italy. Then, at Naples, he had bad news from home. England was drifting towards civil war. So Milton returned in 1639, "for," he tells us, "I considered it base, that, while my fellow countrymen were

fighting at home for liberty, I should be travelling at my ease for intellectual culture" ¹

Milton settled in London and kept a school there for little boys. He was keenly interested in the disputes over religion which were going on at the time, and he wrote several pamphlets in support of the Puritans. He had once intended to be a clergyman, but, in disgust at the actions of Archbishop Land, he had changed his mind.

In 1644 he wrote a famous pamphlet pleading for freedom of speech, and throughout the Civil War he was strongly on Parliament's side. He wrote a pamphlet to justify the execution of the King, and in return he was made Latin Secretary to the Council for Foreign Affairs at a very good salary. He had to compose Cromwell's dispatches to foreign powers, which were written in Latin.

In 1649 a book was published which was wrongly said to be by Charles I himself. It led people to look upon him as "the Martyr King". Milton was asked to reply to it. His book turned the opinions of many foreigners in favour of England. Indeed, it was said at the time that the Commonwealth was made great by Milton's books and Cromwell's battles.

For many years, however, Milton's eyesight had been failing, and just before Cromwell became Protector, he became completely blind. But this did not make him give up his post as secretary, although he now had to dictate his letters to an assistant.

Strangely enough, when Charles II returned to England he bore no grudge against Milton. When he

¹ Quotation from Milton's "Defensio Secunda."

went out, however, the thin blind man in his dull grey coat was often mobbed by the common people

Nevertheless, it was in these sad days of blindness and loneliness and ill health that Milton wrote one of the most majestic poems in all the world—"Paradise Lost"

He tells us about Lucifer (whom we now call Satan), the great angel who, in his ambition, rebelled against God in Heaven, and how he and his army were cast out, and how they planned to revenge themselves by spoiling the new world God had made

Later, in "Paradise Regained," Milton tells how the "greater Man," Jesus Christ, was tempted also, and how He withstood temptation and left us His example, so that we too may resist Satan's plot to spoil the world

Three years before he died, Milton in his blindness wrote another great poem about Samson, the strong man of Israel, who, as you know, was blinded by the Philistines. Milton described this blindness in wonderful poetry

"O dark, dark, dark, amid the blaze of noon"

Above all things Milton loved liberty. He wrote in favour of liberty of the press and liberty of worship. It is to him, and to men like him, that we owe an Englishman's right to think and speak with freedom. He wrote what he thought and never feared the consequences. To him the pen was mightier than the sword.

No More Cakes and Ale.

You may wonder why it was that, after Cromwell's death, England was so ready to agree to the return of Charles II. The truth was that Englishmen had grown tired of the rule of the Puritans.

You have seen that Parliament had been "winnowed, sifted, and brought to a handful," as Cromwell put it. In the same way moderate men were kept out of power and government was administered by very strict Puritans, who made many changes which were not always popular.

These Puritans thought that people should lead quiet, sober lives, wearing plain clothes and eating plain food. They passed all sorts of laws to make people keep the Sabbath. Perhaps you know the old rhyme

"To Banbury came I, O profane one,
Where I saw a Puritane one
Hanging of his cat on Monday
For killing of a mouse on Sunday"

The Puritans made other laws against swearing and fighting duels.

Further, they believed that the theatre was a great cause of wickedness. Certainly, many of the plays were rather silly, and they might even teach people to admire a clever rogue and copy him. Besides the Puritans thought it a waste of time to go to such places. So in 1648 they passed a law closing all theatres.

This threw the actors out of work, and they sent a very witty "Remonstrance" to Parliament. On the whole, their plays were good and harmless, they declared. It was better that idle people should go to the theatre, where they could get into no mischief, than that they should sit drinking in taverns or watch the cruel sports in the Bear Gardens. If these other places were kept open, why should the theatres be closed?

Everybody connected with the theatre now fell upon hard times, as the "Remonstrance" tells us. The orchestra, which was known as "the music," had to go from place to place, asking "Will you have any music, gentlemen?"

"Nay, our very door keepers, men and women, complain that by this stoppage they are robbed of the chance of stealing from us. They cannot seem to scratch their heads when they itch not, and drop shillings and half crown pieces in at their collars."

You have seen, in an earlier chapter, how people celebrated their great festivals, such as May Day and Christmas, and how, even in the days of Elizabeth, the Puritans had thought this was sinful. They put a stop to these old customs, as well as they could, and to all the favourite sports of the time.

Many Englishmen were very angry at all this. They said that they had less freedom under the Puritans than under their kings, and that England was becoming a dismal place. When you read Shakespeare's "Twelfth Night," you will see that the Puritan gentleman, Malvolio,

in that play, made himself disliked in much the same way. - "Dost thou think," he was asked, "because thou art virtuous there shall he no more cakes and ale?"

Besides, it turned out that the taxes which had made men rebel against Charles I. were no lighter. On the contrary, they were three times as heavy and, even so, they did not cover expenses. It is easy to understand that men became discontented and longed to have the free and easy life of "Merrie England" once again.

Do not think that all Puritans were just spoil-sports. That would be quite untrue of such noble men as Oliver Cromwell and John Milton, who saw no harm in innocent pleasures. Even among the poor and ignorant Puritans there were many who were deeply religious in their self-denial. Let us turn now to one of them.

The Tinker of Bedford.

John Bunyan was the son of poor and ignorant parents. He was a Puritan and, when he was only seventeen, he fought in the New Model Army. Then he settled down to his father's trade, working as a tinker in his native village, Elstow, near Bedford.

Bunyan's favourite pastimes give us some idea of how young men enjoyed themselves in those days. He loved dancing on the village green, and ringing the joyful bells of the parish church. He liked to play tip-cat, and, in quiet moments, to read the story of "Sir Bevis of Southampton," which is a quaint old French romance, written after the Crusades and translated into English before Queen Elizabeth's reign.

In the course of time Bunyan began to call these pleasures his "sins." One day, when he was playing tip cat, he stopped suddenly in the act of raising the stick to strike the peg. He felt he was really committing a sin by indulging his love of pleasure, so he never played again.

Then he stopped bell ringing, but he still went to the belfry to see others do it. At last he thought even that was wicked, and he fled from the church lest the steeple should fall on him as a punishment. He gave up reading about "Sir Bevis," and read only religious books.

His last pleasure, dancing on the green, was very hard to give up. After many months he at last did so, and all the Puritans of Elstow thought him a most godly young man.

Years afterwards he began to hope that he might one day be chosen to do good work. At last he left his pots and pans and became a preacher. He was a gifted man, but was not at all learned.

Then, in 1660, the King came home. Churchmen were in power again, and they revenged themselves on the Puritans, who were now known as Dissenters, by throwing their ministers into prison. Bunyan was flung into Bedford gaol. Several times he was offered his liberty if he would promise not to preach, but he always answered, "If you let me out to day I will preach again to morrow." So for twelve long years he lay in a foul prison. During that time he earned a living for his wife and children by making thousands of long tagged thread laces and selling them to hawkers. Even this did not take all his time, and he wrote several books.



THE GREAT FIRE OF LONDON

(From the postcard by Stanhope & Furber A.P.A.)

(See page 150)

In 1672 Charles II decided to give freedom to the Catholics. The Dissenters were included in the pardon and Bunyan was released. Then the poet finished his wonderful book, the *Pilgrim's Progress*. This, like Spenser's "*Fairie Queene*," is an allegory. The chief character is Christian, who sets out from the City of Destruction on a long journey to the New Jerusalem, which is Heaven. He meets with many adventures before he comes to the great river, Death, within sight of the Promised Land. The "*Pilgrim's Progress*" is written in plain, homely language, and it is one of the greatest of all books. It has appealed to everyone and become known even in the poorest homes.

The rest of Bunyan's life was spent in good works. He went about preaching, visiting the sick, and making peace, so that he came to be known as "*Bishop Bunyan*."

For Reading and Reference.

In the King's Service—*Brereton*,
Capt

After Worcester—*Green*, *J*
Everett

The Boy who Sailed with Blake—
Kingston W H

To Right the Wrong—*Jyall*,
Edna

In Spite of All—*Jyall*, *Edna*

Children of the New Forest—
Marryat, *Capt*

Rupert by the Grace of God—
W Chesney D C

Puritan's Wife—*Pemberton*, *Max*
Woodstock—*Scott*, *Sir Walter*



THE RESTORATION—CHARLES II ENTERING LONDON.
(From a contemporary drawing.)

ENGLISH LIFE IN THE DAYS OF CHARLES II.

“Merrie England” Once More.

Charles II made his entry into London on the 29th May 1660, which was his birthday. With him rode a long procession “with a triumph of twenty thousand horse and foot, brandishing their swords and shouting with inexpressible joy.” To greet them they found “the ways strewed with flowers, the bells ringing, the streets hung with tapestry, and the fountains running with wine” “It must be my own fault that I did not come back



Gordon Brown.

A FAIR IN RESTORATION TIMES.

sooner," said Charles in jest, "for I find nobody who does not tell me that he has always longed for my return."

It did not take Englishmen long to throw off the solemn ways that they had adopted under Puritan rule. Indeed, it was said, the Puritans themselves were tired of being solemn, and they invented the fashion of wearing wigs to hide their close-cropped heads. Royalists during the Commonwealth had sung songs about the return of the King, and now they felt their joyful hopes had come true. One song ran :

"For forty years this royal crown
Hath been his father's and his own :
And is there anyone hut he,
That in the same should sharer be ?
For who better may the sceptre sway
Than he that hath the right to reign ?
Then let's hope for a peace, for the wars will not cease
Till the King enjoys his own again."

At Court there were masques once more, although they were soon to give place to operas. Theatres were opened or re-built, and they were now covered in. Candles were used for lighting, and probahly for foot-lights. There may have been an opening to the sky, where the domed ventilator now is in our theatres. Samuel Pepys tells us that he went to the theatre, but "before the play was done, it fell such a storm of hail that we in the middle of the pit were fain to rise; and all the house in a disorder."

The old cruel sports were revived, but men were beginning to be ashamed of them John Evelyn, a

gentleman who kept a Diary out of which you will read from time to time, wrote in 1670 —

"I went with some friends to the bear garden,
 "where was cock fighting, dog fighting, bear and bull-
 "baiting it being a famous day for all these butcherly
 "sports, or rather, barbarous cruelties The bulls did
 "exceedingly well, but the Irish wolf dog exceeded,
 "which was a tall greyhound, a stately creature
 "indeed, who beat a cruel mastiff One of the bulls
 "tossed a dog full into a lady's lap, as she sat in one
 "of the boxes at a considerable height from the
 "arena Two poor dogs were killed, and so all ended
 "with the ape on horseback, and I most heartily
 "weary of the rude and dirty pastime"

In London, coffee houses appeared after the Restoration Men gathered there to talk over a cup of coffee These were the beginning of clubs, where writers, men of affairs, and men of fashion might meet and chat. In the eighteenth century you will read of the famous coffee houses where great writers and poets of the time held their meetings

The jolly cavaliers loved a song as well as the Elizabethans did Pepys writes "At my lord's in the dark, William Howe and I did sing extempores", that is, they made up their songs as they went along Clever old Pepys!

Pepys tells us that, in the Great Fire of London, of which you will read later, people packed their furniture into boats upon the river He noticed that one out of every three had a pair of virginals in it

Another instrument which appeared about this time was the dulcimer Pepye writes after going to the play "Here, among the fiddles, I first saw a dulcimer played on with sticks, knocking of the strings, and is very pretty "

Plague and Fire.

(With Extracts from "Old St Pauls," by W HARRISON AINSWORTH, and the "Diaries" of PEPYS and EVELYN)

When Charles II returned from "his travels," as he called his exile, he saw his good city of London much the same as he had known it when a child Little did he think that in six short years it would be burnt down and a new London would rise in its place

The streets of London were very unhealthy at this time They were too narrow to be airy, and they were badly drained People threw their slops out of the doorways or emptied them from windows, to the risk of passers by The gutters were littered with potato peelings, old cabbage leaves, scraps of meat, fish bones, and every sort of kitchen refuse You can thus imagine that diseases spread much more quickly than nowadays

In 1665 there was a terrible outbreak, known as the Great Plague, which swept away nearly 100,000 lives—one fifth of the total population Infected houses were marked with a red cross, and often with the prayer "Lord, have mercy on us! Those who could flee from the city did so The rest had all they could do to bury their dead At night the death carts would rumble along, with the cry, "Bring out your dead!"

Great pits had to be dug for the victims, for there were so many that it was impossible to give a grave to each



SAVING A CHILD FROM A PLAGUE STRICKEN HOUSE.

The novelist, Harrison Ainsworth, in "Old St. Paul's," tells us about it :

“ All those whose business permitted it prepared to
“ leave London For a while nothing was seen at
“ the great outlets of the city but carts, carriages,
“ and other vehicles filled with goods and movables
“ on the way to the country

“ London now presented a pitiful spectacle Not
“ a street but had a house in it marked with the red
“ cross—some streets had many such The bells
“ were all the time tolling for burials, and the
“ dead carts went their mournful rounds at night
“ and were always loaded

“ But Heaven seemed deaf to the entreaties of
“ the doomed inhabitants, their prayers being
“ followed by a fearful increase of deaths A vast
“ crowd was collected within St Pauls to hear a
“ sermon preached by Dr Sheldon Archbishop of
“ Canterbury, a prelate to be remembered for his
“ ceaseless charity and attention to the sick during
“ the whole course of the visitation, and before
“ the sermon was ended, several fell down within
“ the sacred walls, and, on being carried to their
“ homes, were found to be infected ’

Gradually the Plague ceased, but, in September of 1666, the Great Fire of London began It broke out at one o'clock on a Sunday morning in a bakers shop Most of the houses were built of wood, as you know, and there was a high wind blowing The terrified citizens could do nothing against the flames They rushed about trying to save their property Some of them paid as much as £50 for a cart, and the river was

full of loaded barges. Crowds had to camp out in the fields with their scanty belongings. Samuel Pepys in his "Diary" tells us :

"By and by, Jane comes and tells me that she
 "hears that above three hundred houses have been
 "burned down to-night, and that it is now burning
 "down all Fish Street, by London Bridge. So
 "down, with my heart full of trouble, to the
 "Lieutenant of the Tower, who tells me that it
 "began this morning in the King's baker's house
 "in Pudding Lane.

"Everybody endeavouring to remove their goods,
 "and flinging them into the river, or bringing them
 "into lighters that lay off; poor people staying in
 "their house till the fire touched them, and then
 "running into boats.

"And, among other things, the poor pigeons
 "were loath to leave their houses, but hovered
 "about the windows and balconies, till they burnt
 "their wings and fell down."

John Evelyn, who was in London at this time, wrote :

"The burning still rages, and it is now gotten as
 "far as the Inner Temple. The stones of Paul's
 "flew like *grenadoes* (cannon-balls), the melting
 "lead running down the streets in a stream, and
 "the very pavements glowing with fiery redness.

"In the meantime His Majesty got to the Tower
 "by water to destroy the houses about the moat,

“which, being built entirely about it, had they
 “taken fire and attacked the White Tower where
 “the magazine of powder lay, would undoubtedly
 “not only have heated down and destroyed all the
 “bridge but sunk and torn the vessels in the river

“At my return I was concerned to find that
 “goodly church, St. Pauls now rent in pieces,
 “flakes of vast stone split asunder and nothing
 “remaining entire but the inscription showing by
 “whom it was built

The same writer gives us a terrible picture in another passage

“God grant my eye may never behold the like
 “I now saw about ten thousand houses all in one
 “flame The noise and cracking and thunder of
 “the flames the hurry of the people, the fall of
 “towers, houses and churches was like an awful
 “storm The air was so hot that at last men were
 “not able to approach the fire and were forced to
 “stand still and let the flames burn on which they
 “did for nearly two miles in length and one in
 “breadth The clouds of smoke were dismal and
 “reached nearly fifty six miles in length London
 “was, but is no more !

London Town.

(With word pictures from AINSWORTH, EVELYN and PEPYS)

The famous novelist Harrison Ainsworth has left us a picture of that Old London that has passed away His

hero in "Old St. Paul's" climbs to the tower of the old cathedral and looks down at the city :

"It was not, however, the cathedral itself, but
 "the magnificent view it commanded, that chiefly
 "attracted his attention. From the raised point on
 "which he stood his eye ranged over a vast tract of
 "country bounded by the Surrey hills, and at last
 "settled upon the river. Its surface was spotted,
 "even at this early hour, with craft, while uncount-
 "able vessels of all shapes and sizes were moored to
 "its banks.

"On the left he noted the tall houses *covering*



NARROW STREETS AND OVER-
 HANGING UPPER STOREYS.

"London Bridge; and on
 "the right traced the sweep-
 "ing course of the stream
 "as it flowed from West-
 "minster.

"On this hand, on the
 "opposite bank, lay the
 "flat marshes of Lambeth;
 "while, nearer, stood the
 "old bull-baiting and bear-
 "baiting places, the flags
 "above which could be seen
 "above the tops of the
 "surrounding houses.

"The whole of the city of
 "London was spread out like
 "a map before him, and
 "presented a dense mass

“ of ancient houses, with twisted chimneys, gables,
“ and picturesque roofs, here and there overtopped
“ by a hall, a college, an hospital, or some other
“ lofty structure

“ This vast collection of buildings was girded in by
“ grey and mouldering walls, approached by seven
“ gates, and cut by countless narrow streets The
“ spires and towers of the churches shot up into the
“ clear morning air

“ Every house was picturesque and every street a
“ collection of picturesque objects Then, that which
“ contributed to the unhealthiness of the city, namely,
“ the extreme narrowness of the streets and over
“ hanging storeys of the houses, was the main source
“ of their beauty Then, the huge projecting signs
“ with their fantastical ironwork, the conduits,¹ the
“ crosses, the maypoles, all were picturesque

London was very little changed from Tudor days, for its citizens tried to prevent the town from spreading out This added to the unhealthiness of its overcrowded streets In the days of Charles I wealthy people had begun to move towards the West End, where Inigo Jones planned the fine square of Covent Garden

At night the streets were badly lit by dim lanterns, some not lit at all It was dangerous to go out after dark because of the thieves who waited in the shadows

The Londoner who lay awake at night heard the bellman, as the night watchman was called, telling the hours and the weather Samuel Pepys writes

¹ Channels for the water supply

"I stayed up till the bellman came by with his
 "bell just under my window, as I was writing of this
 "very line, and cried. 'Past one o'clock, and a cold,
 "frosty, windy morning.'"

John Milton, also, in one of his poems, tells us of
 "the bellman's drowsy chime,
 To bless the door from nightly harm."

The Great Fire proved a blessing in disguise, for it swept away some of the disgraceful slums and the filth which had harboured plague-germs.

London had to be re-built. John Evelyn himself, Sir Christopher Wren, the famous architect, and another, named Robert Hooke, made plans for a new city with wide, healthy streets. The jealousies of the citizens, who wanted their houses to be in the same situation as before, prevented a complete change, but there was a great improvement. This time the houses were built of brick and stone instead of wood.

Wren built a new St. Paul's and many other churches, and Robert Hooke saw to the laying out of the streets.

In connection with the rebuilding, John Evelyn has an interesting passage in his "Diary":

"to noblemen, who, being reproved by him for
"frequenting taverns or coffee-houses, told him they
"would study or employ their time better if they
"had books. This put the pious doctor on his
"design; and indeed a great reproach it is that so
"great a city as London should not have a public
"library becoming it."

The library was duly built in Castle Street, St. Martin's Lane, and was designed by the great architect, Sir Christopher Wren.

These were days of hard winters, cold enough to freeze the river Thames. Here is a note that John Evelyn made in his "Diary":

"1684. Jan. 6-9. The river quite frozen. I
"went across the Thames on the ice, now become
"so thick as to bear not only streets of booths, in
"which they roasted meat, and had divers shops of
"wares, quite across as in a town, but coaches, carts,
"and horses passed over."



BOOTHS, SHOPS, ETC., ON THE FROZEN THAMES, 1684

(Smith's Historical and Literary Curiosities—from contemporary sketch by Thomas Wyck.)

Fashions of the Day.

If you look at the picture on this page you will see how the fashions had echanged since the days of Charles I. and his French queen.

The gentleman's tunic has grown into a kind of waistcoat of brocade which reaches almost to the knees. Pepys still speaks of it as a doublet. It was the fore-runner of our modern waistcoat. Our gentleman is dressed in a heavy coat with full skirts, very little longer than his under-coat, with three-quarter sleeves to show his fine shirt sleeves.



GENTLEMAN AND LADY.

COUNTRY FOLK.

(From contemporary prints.)

He no longer wears a big lace collar, but a tab of lace at the throat, called a cravat. He has both lace and bows at the knee of his breeches, and his stockings are of fine silk. His shoes are as narrow as possible, with square toes, and you will notice the muff he carries.

Pepys writes of his clothes :

"I this day left off my great skirt suit, and put on
"my white suit, with silver lace coat."

Later, he tells us

"Captain Sparling brought me a pair of silk
"stockings of a light blue, which I was much pleased
"with"

Then again

"This morning came home my fine camlet cloak
"with gold buttons, and a silk suit, which cost me
"much money, and I pray God to make me able to
"pay for it"

The lady's dress in the same picture is of rich silk. You notice that she wears a pointed bodice, and her skirt is long and flowing. Her cloak is like a silken shawl clasped with an ornament on one shoulder. Sometimes, in place of a hat, she would wear a hood to cover her curls.

Ladies were not always so simply dressed. They sometimes wore riding habits, which were just like the clothes of men. Pepys says

"The Maids of Honour dressed in their riding
"garbs with coats and doublets with deep skirts
"just for all the world like mine, with periwigs and
"with hats, so that only for a long petticoat dragging
"under their men's coats, nobody could take them
"for women in any point whatever, which was an
"odd sight"

Country women in the counties of Somerset, Devon, and Cornwall wore what were called West Country

Rochets. These were large mantles of serge or other woollen material, doubled together, and having a fringe round the edge. They reached sometimes just below the waist, sometimes to the feet. In winter the West Country Rochets were red, in summer white.

Children were still dressed like their elders, and little boys were put into stays to make their long doublets fit neatly.

Highways of England.

(Simplified and adapted from the "History of England,"
by LORD MACAULAY.)

In the seventeenth century both men and goods generally travelled by the highways. Even on the best roads the ruts were deep, the descents steep, and in the dusk it was hardly possible to tell the difference between the road and the open heath and fen which lay on both sides of it.

It was only in fine weather that the whole breadth of the road was fit for wheeled vehicles. Often the mud lay deep on the right and on the left, and only a narrow track of firm ground rose above the mire. It happened almost every day that coaches stuck fast, and a team of cattle had to be procured from some neighbouring farm to tug them out of the slough.

The roads of Derbyshire, for example, were so rough that travellers were in constant fear of injury, and were *forced to alight and lead their beasts*. In 1685, on the great route through Wales to Holyhead, a viceroy, going to Ireland, was five hours in travelling fourteen miles.

Between Conway and Beaumaris he was forced to walk a great part of the way, and his lady was carried in a litter. His coach was, with great difficulty, and by the help of many hands, brought after him entire. In general, carriages were taken to pieces at Conway, and borne on the shoulders of stout Welsh peasants to the Menai Straits.

In some parts of Kent and Sussex none but the strongest horses could, in winter, get through the bog, in which, at every step, they sank deep. The markets often could not be reached during several months.

The wheeled carriages were, in this district, generally pulled by oxen. When Prince George of Denmark (husband of Princess Anne) visited the stately mansion of Petworth in wet weather, he was six hours in going nine miles; and it was necessary that a body of sturdy farm labourers should be on each side of his coach in order to prop it.

Every parish was bound to repair the highways which passed through it. The peasantry were forced to give their labour free, six days in the year. If this was not sufficient, hired labour was employed, and the expense was borne by the people in the parish. Soon after the Restoration, an Act of Parliament, the first of our many turnpike Acts, was passed, imposing a small toll on travellers and goods, for the purpose of keeping some parts of the important roads in good repair.

On the best highways heavy articles were, in the time of Charles II., generally conveyed from place to place by stage waggons. In the straw of these vehicles nestled a crowd of passengers, who could not afford to travel by

coach or on horseback, and who were prevented by infirmity, or by the weight of their luggage, from going on foot. The expense of sending goods in this way was enormous.

On by roads, and generally throughout the country north of York and west of Exeter, goods were carried by long trains of pack horses, and a traveller of humble

York, Chester and Exeter

FROM the George Inn without Aldersgate, Stage Coaches do continue to go and carry Passengers to the Cities of *York, Chester, and Exeter*, and to other Towns in the same Roads every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, at and for reasonable rates.

As also to *Wakefield, Leeds and Halifax* every Friday for 40 s

To { *Durham and Newcastle* upon every Monday for 3 l

{ *Edinburgh in Scotland* once every three weeks for 4 l 10 s

{ *Dover and Canterbury* twice every week in two days for 1 s s

{ *Bath and Bristol* every Monday and Thursday for 20 s With good Coaches, and fresh Horses in the Roads

ADVERTISEMENT FROM 'MERCURIUS POLITICUS' DATED 1658

condition often found it convenient to do a journey mounted on a pack saddle between two baskets. In the spring of 1669, a great and daring attempt was made. It was announced that a vehicle, described as the Flying Coach, would perform the whole journey, between London and Oxford (about sixty miles) between sunrise and sunset. The success of the experiment was complete. At six in the morning the carriage began to move from before the ancient front of All Souls College, and at seven in the evening the adventurous gentlemen who had been its first passengers were safely deposited at their inn in London.

At the close of the reign of Charles II flying coaches ran thrice a week from London to the chief towns. The

ordinary day's journey of a flying coach was about fifty miles in summer; but in winter, when the ways were bad and the nights long, little more than thirty.

It was still usual for men who enjoyed health and vigour to perform long journeys on horseback. If the traveller wished to move fast he rode "post." Fresh saddle-horses and guides were to be had at convenient distances along all the great lines of road. The charge was threepence a mile for each horse and fourpence a stage for the guide.

The mounted and masked highwayman was to be found on every main road. It was necessary to the success, and even to the safety, of the highwayman that he should be a bold and skilful rider, and that his manners and appearance should be such as suited the master of a fine horse. He appeared at fashionable coffee-houses and gaming-houses, and betted with men of quality on the race ground.

For Reading and Reference.

Some Glances at Pepys's Diary— (McDougall)	Journal of the Plague Year— <i>Defoe, Daniel</i>
Diary— <i>Evelyn, John</i> .	When London Burned— <i>Henty</i>



THE HIGHWAYMAN AWAITS THE COACH

THE WORK-A-DAY WORLD.

Old-Time Ways in the Wool Trade.

During the period about which we are reading the people lived in little towns mostly situated in the midlands and south-east. They tilled their fields or worked at their crafts. There was very little machinery, unless you would call a windmill, a water-mill, or a turnspit machinery. In their industries everything depended on the cleverness of the craftsman, and on the trade secrets which had been handed down to him from his father or master.

In Tudor times the woollen industry was the work of the household. It continued so throughout the seventeenth century. In the smallest country place, when the day's work was over, you would see the women sitting at their doors, in the evening sunshine, gently moving the treadle of their spinning wheels and drawing the thread with skilful fingers.

The landowner or farmer sent his wool to market. There it was bought by the spinners. Some time later the thread was brought back to market and sold to the weavers. The weavers made their cloth at home and then brought it again to market.

Those who wanted new clothes bought the material from the weavers on market day. But most of the cloth was bought by dealers who sent it to London, or by

merchants who sold it abroad. Thus, you see, England had an export trade, though cloth making was not done in big factories but in the workers' own homes.

Silk and Cotton Industries.

The industry of silk weaving had not been much practised in England. The fashionable silks had to be brought from France. In James I's reign there was an attempt to rear silkworms in England. Silk weavers and silk dyers were brought from Italy to teach Englishmen how to make beautiful silks, but, try as they would, they could not make such fine materials as those of France. It was from the French themselves that Englishmen learned this industry. In 1685 great numbers of the Huguenots, or French Protestants, were driven from their country and came to settle in England, where they worked at their own trade. Many of them were silk weavers. Within twenty years, as many as 80,000 crossed to these Islands. Many of them settled round London, in Spitalfields, and others in the important southern towns. Some, it is said, went as far north as Edinburgh, and even crossed to Ireland.

After this settlement the English silk industry advanced by leaps and bounds. Some say it increased twentyfold. In Charles II's reign Englishmen bought £200,000 worth of silk cloth every year from abroad, but when ten years had passed, the silks and all the ribbons that they needed were being made at home.

If you look through the drapers' advertisements at this time you will see how names of silk materials

have changed. A thin, glossy, black silk was called "alamodes"; heavy, soft silk for women's hoods was known as "ducapes", and the heavy silk for cloaks and mantles went by the name of "mantuas". "Lustrings" was the name given to a rich, shiny silk that was used for the clothing of both men and women. Names which we have to day were used in those days too, like brocade, velvet, and even taffeta.

Already, in the seventeenth century, Manchester was a growing town. In the middle of the century merchants of Manchester and Bolton were buying cotton from Cyprus and Smyrna to weave into "cottons". But cottons in those days meant that linen or wool was used for the warp or strong thread of the cloth, and cotton only for the weaker thread or weft. A process had not yet been discovered whereby both warp and weft could be of cotton.

Improved Methods.

In the seventeenth century men and women alike dressed in silk and lace, which at first came from abroad. Fashionable people would not wear the coarse lace made in Nottinghamshire. In Charles II.'s reign, when foreign lace was forbidden, lace from Flanders and France was smuggled into England. But, at a later date, Flemish and French lace-makers were brought to England to teach the English workers in the midlands and south. That is why the English pillow lace is so like that of Brussels, Mechlin, and Valenciennes.

In this same county of Nottinghamshire stocking-making was a flourishing industry. In Queen Elizabeth's day a clergyman, named William Lee, made a stocking frame with twenty needles to the inch. This frame was not much used until nearly a hundred years later, in the time of Charles II.

Other industries sprang up for which we owe much to foreign craftsmen. A Frenchman, named Bonhomme, settled at Ipswich and taught Englishmen to make canvas and sailcloth, which were specially useful to a seafaring nation. In the making of everyday things, like baskets, paper, buttons, combs, cutlery, needles, thread, tapestry, soap, and glass ware, new methods were used which had been brought from France.

The pottery industry, also, was prospering in the seventeenth century. A chain of villages in Staffordshire, lying in the valley of the Trent, were busy at this work. Many kinds of fine clay were found nearby, though the pottery of these times was not as artistic as that of a century later.

A special kind of clay was moulded and set to dry in the sun. In this way a rough ware, known as "butter pots," was made. It became famous for keeping butter cool.

Coloured pottery up to this time had been very clumsy. It was roughly mottled with colour, sprinkled with finely powdered lead and burnt in the kilns. Again help came from foreigners. Two brothers named Ellers invented a successful method of glazing. They put salt in the kilns, and the fumes from this gave a glassy surface to the pottery.

Coal-Mining and Iron-Smelting.

Some of the industries, which were later to flourish in the north and to draw thousands of people from their homes in the south, had already begun. The value of coal-fields, however, was not then appreciated. Evelyn tells us, in 1686.

"Came Sir Gilbert Gerrard to treat with me
"about his son's marrying my daughter Susanna."

But he goes on to imply that he is not very satisfied with the wealth of Sir Gilbert because :

"I found most of his estate was in the coal-pits
"as far off as Newcastle."

Besides showing how little coal-owning was respected, the words remind us of the terrible state of the roads, which made a journey from London to Newcastle an adventure fraught with many dangers.

Coal had been used ever since the thirteenth century. It was dug from pits round Newcastle and was sent to London in ships, so that it sometimes got the name of "sea-coal." In Staffordshire it was dug from the surface, the mines sloping not deeper than eight to twenty yards. Later it was mined in Derbyshire also.

In some mines at Chesterfield, we are told, square narrow holes, called grooves, were cut to open into the pits. Wooden props were fitted into the corners of these grooves. A miner climbed into the pit through one of these openings, cut as much coal as he could

carry, probably in a bag on his back, and climbed out again.

A lady, who travelled all over England at the end of the seventeenth century, visited Chesterfield, and tells us in her journal :

"They make their mines at the entrance like a well, and so till they come to the coal, then they dig all the ground about where there is coal, and set pillars to support it, and so bring it to the well, where, by a basket like a hand-barrow, by cords, they pull it up . . . so they let down and up the mines with a cord."

Wood fuel, instead of coal, was used for smelting iron.

Four loads of wood had to be burnt to make two loads of charcoal, and two loads of charcoal were needed to smelt one ton of iron. Thus, you can see that timber would be very quickly used up.

Michael Drayton, a poet of the days of James I., speaks of the destruction of woodland in these words:

"Our trees so hacked above the ground
That where their lofty tops the neighbouring countries
crowned,
Their trunks, like aged folks, now bare and naked
stand,
As for revenge to Heaven, each held a withered hand."

Parliament feared that timber needed for shipbuilding would be used up for charcoal, so a law was passed forcing those who cut down trees to plant more in their place. When charcoal-burning became so difficult, ironfounders began to use coal as fuel.

Let us see how the old iron workers used charcoal. Their furnace was surrounded with a rough wall and blown with bellows. Into it they laid a layer of charcoal, then a layer of iron ore, and so on until the furnace was full. A light was then set to the fuel, and the bellows fanned it all to a fierce heat.

In this way the iron would be melted and separated from stones and rubbish. This smelted iron, or pig iron, would be put on to an anvil and beaten with a great hammer into a "bloom," as a lump of wrought iron was called. At first the beating had to be done by the smith, but it was done later by trip hammers.¹ Steam was not in use until many years later, so water power was used to turn the great wheel. This, in turn, moved a smaller wheel which was toothed, and worked the trip hammer. As the wheel turned, the teeth, one after another, raised the hammer and then allowed it to drop. The soft "bloom" was worked into most beautiful designs, all done by hand with chisel, hammer, and anvil.

Iron was worked in the Weald of Sussex and in the Forest of Dean. From the latter place it was sent on the river Severn to Worcestershire, Shropshire, Staffordshire, Warwickshire, and Cheshire.

Mining for Tin, Copper, and Salt.

From ancient times tin and copper had been mined in Cornwall. Great numbers of people were at work, it was said, almost night and day, and even on Sundays,

¹ Heavy pivoted hammers.

to keep the mines free from water. The wheel which did the pumping was worked by horses that walked round and round. Later, a wheel like that of a water-mill was used.

The tin or copper mine was sunk like a well. Men and boys scrambled below to dig for the ore and put it into one of two buckets, which were lowered, one after the other, by a rope. This was moved up and down by a roller, such as one sees at the top of a well to-day. As it turned, it shortened the rope of one bucket and drew it up, and lengthened the rope of the other bucket to let it down. The tin and copper ore was sent by sea to Bristol to be smelted.

. Yet another kind of mining began in the days of Charles II. In 1670, miners boring for coal near Northwich, found rock salt in a layer or vein twenty-five feet thick. This may not seem at first important to us. In those days, however, great quantities of salt were used for curing meat. Bay salt might be got from evaporating sea water, as was done in towns like Southampton, Bristol, and Shields. What was called Brine salt was brought from salt-pits in Cheshire and Worcestershire. But this was not enough, and more salt had to be brought from France. With the discovery of rock salt England could now supply all her needs.

FROM RESTORATION TO REVOLUTION.

The Merry Monarch, as Charles II. was often called, reigned for twenty-five years. His witty tongue and the cleverness that lurked behind his lazy manner got him out of many difficulties. But, like his father, he was not to be trusted. These lines were written as a mock epitaph, or verse for his gravestone -

"Here lies our sovereign lord the King,
Whose word no man relies on,
Who never said a foolish thing
And never did a wise one."

He was very lazy, very selfish, and very wasteful. At the same time, he was good-natured, and he took a real interest in art and in science.

It was said that he was at heart a Roman Catholic, but he did not want to risk trouble with his subjects. Andrew Marvell, who wrote the lines you have read about Charles I.'s death, dared to write of Charles II. :

"Then Charles without a cre
Did swear by his Maker,
'If e'er I see England again
I'll have a religion all of my own,
Whether Popish or Protestant shall not be known,
And if it prove troublesome I will have none.'"

Charles, as we have seen, had promised a free pardon and freedom of worship to all his subjects. He had, however, a Parliament, known as the Cavalier Parliament, which was said to be more Royalist than the King himself, and they passed many laws against the Puritans. No man could be elected to Parliament or to the city councils unless he declared that it was wrong to take up arms against the King, and also received Communion according to the Church of England. Clergy and schoolmasters were bound in the same way, and had to agree with everything contained in the Book of Common Prayer. Over two thousand clergymen lost their livings, and they were forbidden to come within five miles of them, or of any town, unless they took the oath of loyalty to the King, and promised not to try to make alterations in Church or State. Religious meetings other than those of the Church of England were forbidden.

These laws were known as the *Clarendon Code*, because they were passed while Edward Hyde, Lord Clarendon, was the King's chief adviser. This was the Lord Clarendon who wrote "*The History of the Great Rebellion*," of which you have already heard. In religion Clarendon was intolerant, but he was an honest, hard-working man. He was too serious to be popular at Court. It happened that his daughter, Anne Hyde, married the King's brother, James Duke of York, and it was thought that he was seeking power for himself.

Charles II. had always been on friendly terms with France, and in 1662 he sold Dunkirk to that country. It had been in the possession of England for only four

years, and it would have been expensive to fortify. But the nation was angry and blamed Clarendon.

In 1665 war broke out with Holland. Each of the two countries was jealous of the trade and colonies of the other. Pepys, who had a post at the Admiralty, writes :

“All the morning I was much troubled to think
“what the end of our great sluggishness will be, for
“we do nothing in this office like people able to
“carry on a war.”

However, the English fleet, under James Duke of York, won a great battle off Lowestoft in 1665. The next year the Dutch, after four days' hard fighting in the Downs, had the victory over Prince Rupert and General Monk, now Duke of Albemarle. Soon afterwards the Dutch were again defeated, and fire-ships were sent into one of their harbours. Next year the Dutch took their revenge, when their fleet sailed boldly up the Thames, burning and sinking the shipping, and carried away the Admiral's ship to Holland. Peace was made in 1667.

The Dutch War caused the downfall of Clarendon. We have already seen him blamed for the sale of Dunkirk. He was now blamed for England's disgrace when the Dutch sailed up the Thames. The King warned him to leave England before Parliament could impeach him, and he crossed to France and died there.

Charles then took five advisers. They were called the *Cabal*, a word used of any secret council. As it

happened, the initial letters of their names make the word Cabal. They were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley Cooper (afterwards Lord Shaftesbury), and Lauderdale. Clifford and Arlington were Roman Catholics. While the Cabal was in power, Charles made his first attempts to bring back the Roman Catholic religion.

Now England had entered into a Protestant alliance with Holland and Sweden, to help these countries against the Roman Catholics, and especially to prevent Louis XIV from taking the Spanish Netherlands. The Netherlands are known as Belgium to day. Englishmen were eager to help the Protestants there, not only for their religion's sake, but because they were afraid that France was becoming too powerful.

Although Charles consented to do so, he never meant to keep his word. He plotted with France and made the secret *Treaty of Dover* in 1670. By this, he agreed that Louis should have the Spanish Netherlands, and he even promised to help France to conquer them, in return for money. Further, he undertook to declare himself a Roman Catholic "at a convenient opportunity, in return for more money. If there was any disturbance, Louis was to help him to settle it.

Charles put off declaring war until he had got Parliament to allow him a large sum of money. Then the English Admiral was ordered to lie in wait for the Dutch merchant fleet. The Dutch got safely away. A writer of the time says truly "This (attack) was a breach of faith such as Mohammedans and pirates would have been ashamed of, the unsuccessfulness of the action

made it appear as ridiculous as it was base " Another war with the Dutch followed, but England was glad to make peace in 1674

Meanwhile, Charles was trying to pave the way for a return of the Roman Catholic religion He dared not be too open about this, so he pretended to be tolerant to all religions In 1672 he issued a *Declaration of Indulgence*, withdrawing the laws against those who did not belong to the Church of England, whether they were Roman Catholics or Dissenters Parliament would not allow this, in fact, it brought in a new law against them, saying that they were not to hold any State office Even the Duke of York had to obey this law and retire from the Admiralty

The most important law passed in this reign was the *Habeas Corpus Act* of 1679 It declared that a man who has been arrested must be brought up for trial as soon as possible, instead of being kept in prison for a long time, while perhaps his trial was being purposely delayed This Act stands with Magna Carta in defence of the liberty of an Englishman

In 1678 a certain Titus Oates scared the whole nation by declaring that there was a Roman Catholic plot to murder Charles and set up his brother James as king Oates was a scoundrel, and there was no such plot, but even Parliament believed every word he said, and many Roman Catholics were put to death Men began to dread the time when James would be king Many of them wanted Charles to adopt as his heir the Protestant Duke of Monmouth, for there was a story that his mother had been secretly married to Charles before he

came to the throne, so that Monmouth was really the King's son. Charles did nothing, however.

The King had to give up the idea of declaring himself a Roman Catholic, but on his death-bed he was received into the Roman Church. His life ended with a jest. He had been a long time dying, he said, "but he hoped they would excuse it."

For Reading and Reference.

Old St. Paul's— <i>Ainsworth, J. Harrison.</i>	The Refugees— <i>Doyle, Sir A. Conan.</i>
Ovingdean Orange— <i>Ainsworth, J. Harrison.</i>	In the Golden Days— <i>Lyall, Edna.</i>
	Peveril of the Peak— <i>Scott, Sir Walter</i>



"LACES LONG AND STRONG!"

"CLEAN YOUR CHIMNEYS!"

(From old drawings in "Cross of London.")

THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION

The Last of the Stewart Kings.

James succeeded to the throne as James II. Although he was a Roman Catholic, he might have kept the loyalty of his subjects as long as he did not try to alter their religion.

There was rebellion in the first year of his reign. The Duke of Monmouth raised an army in Devon and Somerset, but he was defeated at Sedgemoor and executed. The King sent his Chief Justice, Jeffreys, to punish the rebels. Hundreds of them were hanged or sent out to America as slaves, and this was called "the Bloody Assize." The other rising, which was in Scotland under the Earl of Argyll, met with no better success, and Argyll too was executed.

James now felt secure, and he began to put aside all the laws that had been passed against Roman Catholics. He gave the chief posts in the government to Roman Catholics. He appointed Roman Catholics to be officers in his army. He tried to convert the University of Oxford by putting Roman Catholics in power there. He set up a Court where he could try people and punish them privately. He dissolved Parliament, and then asked for a list of Roman Catholics and Dissenters who would be suitable for election to the next Parliament, hoping that the nation would think him broad minded in religion. In 1688 he passed a Declaration of Indulgence, which declared that none of the laws against

Roman Catholics and Dissenters were to be applied. This was to be read in all the churches. Seven bishops, including the Archbishop of Canterbury, refused to read it, and they were sent for trial.

When the seven bishops were acquitted there was great rejoicing, as Evelyn tells us :

“there was a lane of people from the King’s bench
 “to the Waterside, on their knees, as the bishops
 : “passed and repassed, to beg their blessing. Bonfires
 “were made that night, and bells rung, which was
 “taken very ill at Court. . . . The night was
 “solemnised with bonfires and other fireworks.”

Just at this time there was an unexpected event. James, as you know, had married the Earl of Clarendon’s daughter, and they had two children, the Princess Mary and the Princess Anne. Both were brought up as Protestants and married Protestant princes. This made people content to wait quietly until James, who was already elderly, should die, and his daughter Mary succeed to the throne. James had made a second marriage to a Roman Catholic princess, but after many years they still had no children. It came as a great surprise when a son was born to them, who would be King of England and a Roman Catholic. A story got about that the baby had been brought into the palace in a warming-pan, and that this was a plot to make England a Roman Catholic country. It was time to rebel, men thought, and a letter was secretly sent to Princess Mary’s husband, William of Orange, asking him to protect the liberties of the people.

William of Orange landed at Torbay with an army and the whole country welcomed him. James fled to France, and afterwards he made trouble in Ireland, but his reign was over.

A Bloodless Revolution.

The change of king and queen, which came about in 1688, is sometimes spoken of as the "Bloodless Revolution." In choosing William and Mary, Englishmen were using the old Anglo-Saxon right of electing their ruler. It was not until this reign that we see the results of the Civil War and the victory of Parliament.

James had forfeited his kingdom. Henceforth the King was to rule by the will of his people, not by the "Divine Right" that the Stewarts had claimed.

Parliament could control the ruler through money grants made every year. This forced the King to call an annual Parliament.

Not satisfied with this, Parliament passed a *Bill of Rights* in 1689. By this law no one who was a Roman Catholic, or married to a Roman Catholic, could ever sit on the English throne. The King had to obey the law of the land, like any other man, and he could not have special courts outside the common law. Moreover, Parliament was to be elected freely, and not packed with the "king's men," as had sometimes been the case under both Tudors and Stewarts. In Parliament members were to be free to say what they liked, and in courts of law only reasonable fines were to be fixed.

In the same year a law, known as the *Toleration Act*, was passed. It did not give complete toleration, such as we have nowadays, but it allowed Dissenters to worship freely. But there was no freedom for Roman Catholics.

For Reading and Reference.

For Faith and Freedom— <i>Besant, Sir W.</i>	Barbara Winslow, Rebel— <i>Ellis, Beth</i>
Lorna Doone— <i>Blackmore, R. D.</i>	Captain of the Guard— <i>Grant, J.</i>
Micah Clarke— <i>Doyle, Sir A. Conan.</i>	John Marston Hall— <i>James, G. P. R.</i>

IRELAND IN STEWART DAYS.

We have already learned from the poet Spenser how wretched a place Ireland was at the end of Queen Elizabeth's reign. Her successor, James I., did not make the country any happier. In 1607 two Irish earls feared that they were going to be arrested on some charge, so they left Ireland. Their estates in Ulster, according to Irish law, belonged to their tribes; but James took this chance of getting the best part of their lands for himself. Then he divided them out again among Englishmen and Scotsmen. This was called the "plantation" of Ulster.

In 1633 Charles I. sent Strafford to govern Ireland. Strafford's motto was "Thorough." To keep the peace he needed a good army. He found only a disorderly rabble; but, before long, he turned it into a well-drilled, well-paid army with good officers.

Until Strafford's time the Irish Sea was full of pirates
He swept them away and made the sea safe for trade

To Strafford also must be given the credit of starting
the flax growing and linen weaving industry in the north.
He hoped that Ireland might become rich and busy

In spite of doing so much that was good, Strafford was
hated by the Irish for his impatience and lack of under
standing He made himself still more hated by claiming
nearly all the land of Connaught because the landowners
had no written title to their estates He intended to
bring over more English and Scottish settlers, but before
he could do this he was recalled to England in 1640

In 1641, a few months after Strafford's execution, a
rebellion broke out in Ireland There were deep rooted
causes for it The Irish could not forget the savage war
in Elizabeth's time, the plantation of Ulster by James I,
and the attempted plantation of Connaught by Strafford
Then, to make matters worse for the Roman Catholics
in Ireland, Scottish Covenanters and English Puritans
were coming into power in England

The rebellion began in Ulster, where the English and
Scots were driven out Then it spread to Wicklow, the
district south of Dublin In a rising of this kind there
was sure to be much bloodshed Many Protestants
were either killed or driven from their homes to die of
hunger and cold

Rumours of this reached England, and the numbers
of Protestants said to have been killed increased by
thousands as the story went round The Puritans were
enraged, and passed cruel laws against Roman Catholics
in Ireland

After the death of Charles I. in 1649 the rebellion was crushed by Cromwell. Gaining control of all the coast except that of Waterford in the south-east, he stormed Drogheda and Wexford, and put the whole garrison of Drogheda to the sword.

From 1641 to 1652 Ireland had been in a state of constant warfare, and its condition was fearful. There were suffering and famine everywhere. Wolves overran the country in great packs. In these terrible years thousands of Irishmen left their troubled country and enlisted as soldiers in the armies of other countries. Hundreds more were sent to Barbados and sold to the planters. Great tracts of country now had no people on them at all.

Under the Puritan rule Cromwell's soldiers and other Protestants gained lands in Ireland. Good order was kept; Ireland had free trade with England and the country began to settle down.

In Charles II's time the Duke of Ormonde ruled Ireland peaceably, but Ireland lost her free trade with England. As the country settled down, Irish cattle and flocks were raised in great numbers on the rich pastures. This the English farmers felt would be against their interests, and they secured that a law should be passed forbidding Irish cattle, pigs, or sheep, alive or dead, to be brought into England lest they might bring down the prices which English farmers wished to get for their beasts. In this way Irish trade was ruined.

Later, when James II. fled from England to France, he landed in Ireland with a French army. The Roman Catholics in Ireland rose in his favour, and the

Protestants were shut up in the two towns of Londonderry and Enniskillen, which the Roman Catholics besieged. They were rescued by William of Orange, and James, after being defeated at the Battle of the Boyne, fled back to France in 1691.

But the troubles of Ireland were by no means over. The English Parliament took vengeance on the Irish for their part in the struggle. They forbade that any manufactured woollen goods should be sent out of Ireland at all, and they would allow Irish wool only to be sent to England, where it had to pay heavy duties. In this way the Irish woollen industry was strangled, so that the English industry might keep the lead.

This was not all. Cruel laws, known as the Penal Laws, began to be passed against Roman Catholics in Ireland, who, as we have seen, formed four fifths of the people of the country.

A Roman Catholic had no vote. He could hold no office, even such a lowly one as that of a gamekeeper. He could not go to a university nor teach in a school. He could not buy land, he could not marry a Protestant, and he was not allowed to be guardian of a child.

Nearly a hundred years were to pass before Irishmen obtained relief from these laws.

For Reading and Reference

Ethne (Civil War)—*Field*
 Fortunes of Captain Torlogh O'Brien
James IX }—*Le Fanu, J S*

A Man's Foes (James II)—*Strain, E H*

who heard him was a young Englishman called William Harvey, afterwards physician to James I and Charles I. Very little was known about the human body at this time, and it was Harvey who found out how the blood circulated—how it came from the heart and went back to the heart again. This was especially wonderful, since not until 1661, four years after Harvey's death, was the microscope invented.

The next great English scientist, and one of the greatest of all scientists, was Sir Isaac Newton (1643-1727). As he was lying one day in his father's orchard the fall of an apple set him thinking. Why should it fall down and not up? Newton saw that the earth exercises a pull, or attraction, which he called gravitation.

Newton gave much thought to the reasons for all motion. As a result he made it possible to calculate the amount of energy in a moving object and the course its movement will take. He also experimented with light. Using a specially made glass called a prism, he split up a stream of sunlight into the seven colours of the rainbow.

Science has made marvellous progress since then, but it was in the seventeenth century that it received its start. One of the most useful things that Charles II did for England was to found the Royal Society for the encouragement of progress in science.

For Reading and Reference

Why and How A Book of Makers of Science—*Hart O B*
Everyday Science—*Sankay*
and *Royds* (*McDougall*)

GALILEO



HARVEY



DIAGRAM TO SHOW
CIRCULATION

NEWTON



THREE GREAT SCIENTISTS OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

Galileo Galilei invented a special form of telescope and discovered many facts about the Sun, Moon, Venus, and Stars.

William Harvey discovered the Circulation of the Blood.

Sir Isaac Newton discovered the Law of Universal Gravitation.

who heard him was a young Englishman called William Harvey, afterwards physician to James I and Charles I. Very little was known about the human body at this time, and it was Harvey who found out how the blood circulated—how it came from the heart and went back to the heart again. This was especially wonderful, since not until 1661, four years after Harvey's death, was the microscope invented.

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For Reading and Reference

Why and How. A Book of Makers of Science—*Hart, O. B.*
Everyday Science—*Sankey*
and *Royds (McDougall)*



BRITISH HOMES ACROSS THE SEA.

In North America.

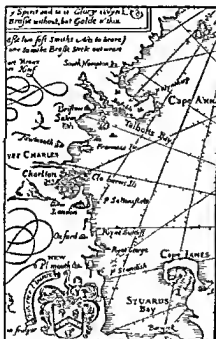
The days of Elizabeth were days of adventure, not of settlement. Roving the seas in tiny ships and fighting for Spanish treasure formed part of a grim game. Men learnt in this way to know the world they lived in and became used to sailing in ships. They had visited every continent except Australia, which was not known to Englishmen until many years after.

Of all the adventurers of the time of Drake, one, at least, looked ahead and foresaw the day when Englishmen might live happily overseas. This was Sir Walter Raleigh, of whom you have read. Raleigh, you remember, tried to colonise Virginia, but he was unsuccessful.

In spite of its early failure, Virginia was to be the first of our American colonies. In 1606 two companies were formed—one to settle a colony in the south, and one in the north. The northern, or Plymouth, company did much work in exploration, but founded only two small

settlements, called Portsmouth and Dover, in New Hampshire.

The southern, or London company, sent out a party of settlers in 1606 to Chesapeake Bay, where they founded Jamestown. The leader was Captain John



THE COAST OF MASSACHUSETTS.

(Section of map in John Smith's "Generall History of Virginia, New England, and the Summer Isles," 1624.)



POCAHONTAS PLEADS FOR THE LIFE OF JOHN SMITH

(Redrawn from John Smith's "Generall History.")

Smith, who had fought and traded in almost every country of Europe.

Smith once went inland to buy corn, leaving his men to build their houses in Jamestown. He was made prisoner by the Indians, and only saved from death by Pocahontas, daughter of the Red Indian king.

Years later Pocahontas herself was taken prisoner by the settlers, and married John Rolfe, the first tobacco planter

When John Smith got back to Jamestown he found that all but forty of his men had died Two other bands arrived from England, one numbering a hundred and twenty and the other seventy Captain Smith tells us how the early settlers suffered

“Thero were never Englishmen left in a foreign
 “country in such misery as wo were in this new
 “discovered Virginia We watched every thirde
 “night, lying on the bare cold ground, what
 “weather soever came, and warded all the next
 “day, which brought our men to be most feeble
 “wretches Our food was but a small can of barley
 “sodden in water to five men a day Our drink,
 “cold water taken out of the river, which was at
 “flood, very salt, at a low tide, full of slime and
 “filth, which was the destruction of many of our
 “men’

In spite of hardships Smith ruled the settlers well and kept the Indians quiet

“Nothing, he said, “is to be expected but by
 “labour

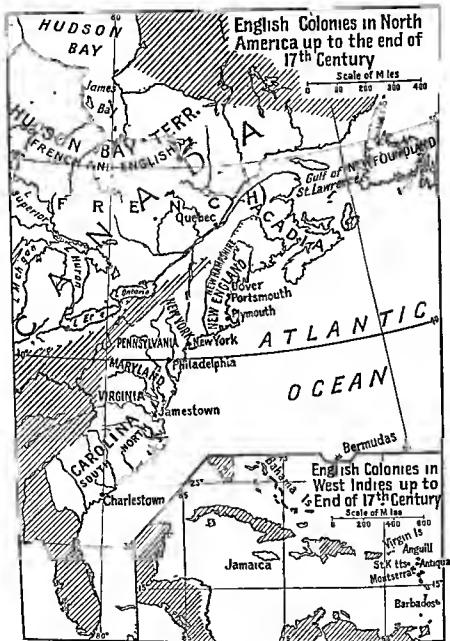
So he made the lazy either work or starve The colony prospered under his rule and more settlers came out from England These, however, refused to obey him, and tried to murder him He went home to England, badly wounded, in 1609

You have read in an earlier chapter about the Puritans. They had very little freedom of worship under the Stewart kings, and many of them, like the Brownists of Queen Elizabeth's reign, went to Holland.



THE "MAYFLOWER" REACHES THE NEW WORLD

In 1620 some of the Puritans decided to sail to America where they would be quite free to worship as they liked. Their ship—the *Mayflower*—reached the New World, not far from the present New York, and they called their new home "New England." These "Pilgrim Fathers," as they were called, had a hard time.



MAP SHOWING AMERICAN COLONISATION IN THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES.

They arrived, sick and famished, in a snow-bound country, but ill and numbed as they were, they set to work with a will, hewing logs for their houses and building their little town of New Plymouth with all speed. They had come to make their homes there, not to get rich and then return to England, as many Virginian colonists had hoped to do.

Other Puritans from England and Holland joined them, and soon New England grew powerful. These Puritans wanted liberty for themselves, but they would give it to no one else. Anyone who differed from them was driven

Roman Catholics, too, sought freedom in the New World. A little band of them under Lord Baltimore, an Irish peer, settled in Newfoundland in 1623, but the cold climate was not good for corn-growing, and the colony was a failure. It was not until fishermen began to settle on the coasts to dry or salt the fish which they caught near the island that it began to prosper. It has been said that Newfoundland was the first English colony, for it was discovered by Cabot in 1497; it was not colonised, however, until after Virginia and New England.

Charles I. afterwards granted to Lord Baltimore a tract of land lying north of the Potomac. In 1633 Baltimore's brother, Leonard Calvert, took a party of working men out there, with only a few gentlemen as leaders. They called their new colony Maryland, after Henrietta Maria. This was the happiest colony of all, for people could worship there in any way they liked. There was freedom for all in Maryland. These colonists do not seem to have suffered as others did. They always

had plenty of supplies, and almost everything they undertook prospered

In 1663, when Charles II. was reigning, the land south of Virginia was colonised and named North and South Carolina. The following year the English won from the Dutch their little colony on the river Hudson, including the town of New Amsterdam. Charles II. gave this to his brother the Duke of York, and the town was re-named New York in honour of him.

In 1670 the English were very active in the land round Hudson Bay. They did not settle there, but a trading company was formed and grew rich in traffic in furs.

We have read about the hard treatment of Dissenters in Charles II.'s time. Perhaps the most unjustly treated of all, by other Dissenters as well as churchmen, were members of the Society of Friends, or "Quakers." Their leader was William Penn, to whom the King owed money. Instead of asking for repayment, Penn secured a grant of land in America on the west side of the Delaware river. Here he sent a party of "Quakers" in 1681. This was as happy a colony as Maryland, for here, too, was religious freedom. All who suffered injustice knew they would be safe in the colony called, after its founder, Pennsylvania. Even the name of its capital, Philadelphia, came from the Greek words for "brotherly love."

Thus, by the end of the seventeenth century, British homes were to be found everywhere upon the east coast of North America.

The Little Islands in the Atlantic.

If you look at the map on page 224 you will see the Bermudas, a little group of islands about 600 miles east of the American coast. Early in the seventeenth century a party of sixty colonists arrived at the principal island of Bermuda. They worked hard, and soon were growing great crops of potatoes and tobacco.

The rich islands of the West Indies, too, began to be captured and settled by Englishmen. In 1629, while England was at war with Spain, English colonists were sent out to the island of St. Kitts, which is one of that chain of islands sweeping north of Trinidad, called the Lesser Antilles. The French settled on another part of the island at the same time. A few years later Spanish ships appeared, carried off all the colonists, and sent many of them into slavery. Such were the risks of our early settlers. In 1667 St. Kitts was given back to England.

In 1627 the island of Barbados was settled by Englishmen. It was a very rich island, on which grew plenty of maize, or "Indian corn," plantains, which are of the same family as the banana, sugar cane, and cassava, the shrub from which tapioca is obtained. In 1640 the industry of making sugar from the sugar cane began.

In the course of time other islands in the West Indies were colonised, including Jamaica.

Britons in the East.

We must now turn from the west to the east to see what Englishmen were doing overseas. Drake had, in Elizabeth's reign, sailed the Pacific and the Indian Oceans. Although the King of Spain declared that Englishmen had no right there, Elizabeth told him that

"What the Spaniards did was lawful for the
"English to do, since the sea and the air were
"common to all men

After the defeat of the Armada Englishmen became bolder in venturing to the east. In the last years of Elizabeth's reign the East India Company was formed for trade with all parts east of the Cape of Good Hope.

Already the Dutch and Portuguese had most of the trade in the east, and England had to fight hard to gain a share in it. Her traders decided to give all their attention to India itself.

Here they had to struggle against the Portuguese, but they held their ground, and, when the Emperor of Delhi, who was called the Great Mogul, saw how strong the English were getting, he granted them permission to build a "factory" or warehouse for their goods at Surat. In time additional factories were built at other towns.

Up to this time the English had owned no land whatever in India. They were simply traders there by the grace of the Great Mogul and other rulers. But in 1662 Charles II married a Portuguese princess, who brought, as part of her dowry, the island of Bombay. Charles gave this to the East India Company for £10 a year.

Towards the end of the seventeenth century the Company added to its possessions by purchasing Fort St David and the district and town of Calcutta, where it built Fort William. This was the small beginning of our great Empire in India.

In Africa, too, Englishmen were making settlements. Gambia, on the west coast, is said to have been settled in 1631, and Cape Coast Castle was won from the Dutch in 1661.

Thus in the seventeenth century we can see the humble beginnings of our huge British Empire. Great advances were later to be made in India and Africa. In North America Canada was afterwards wrested from the French. The great Dominions of Australia and New Zealand were yet to be discovered.

From the simple need of trade and self defence, there grew up in the heart of this island people that love of the sea and thirst for adventure which built up our Empire. Where is the Briton who does not respond to these lines of our modern poet, John Masefield?

“I must go down to the seas again, for the call of the
running tide
Is a wild call and a clear call that may not be denied,
And all I ask is a windy day with the white clouds
flying,
And the flung spray and the blown spume and the
sea gulls crying.”

For Reading and Reference

The Old Dominion—*Johnston, M* By Order of the Company—
Johnston, M

1500

THE AGE OF DISCOVERY



THE NEW LEARNING

THE REFORMATION WOOLEN INDUSTRY



ENCLOSURE OF COMMON LANDS



MARITIME ENTERPRISE



POTATO 1588

SPANISH ARMADA

DAWN OF MODERN TIMES

ELIZABETHAN TIMES

AGE OF 1600

CROMWELL

CIVIL WARS 1642-1651



THE ENGLAND SUPREME COMMONWEALTH 1649-1660

SETTLEMENT OF PURITANS IN NEW ENGLAND 1620



PETITION OF RIGHT 1628



GALILEO'S TELESCOPE 1609



AUTHORISED VERSION OF THE BIBLE 1611



UNION OF THE CROWNS 1603

SHAKESPEARE

1660

ON THE SEAS

THE STEWARTS



THE RESTORATION 1660



PLAGUE AND FIRE 1665



PLAGUE AND FIRE 1665



NEWTON'S DISCOVERY OF GRAVITATION 1665



THE STAGE COACH PUBLISHED 1665



LANDING OF WILLIAM OF ORANGE 1689



DECLARATION OF RIGHTS 1689

THE STEWARTS

THE REVOLUTION

Individual Study.

PART I

The Passing of the Middle Ages

Pages 9-17

- 1 Suppose you are a peasant of the Middle Ages, with a wife and children. Your overlord wants you to go with him to battle, or make him a payment instead. What would you decide to do, and why?
- 2 Suppose you are an overlord living about the end of the Middle Ages. What do you think of the changes taking place?
- 3 Write down what is meant by commutation of service, payment in kind, retainers, demesne, livery.
- 4 How did Henry VII check the power of the nobles?

Life in Tudor Times

Pages 18-33

- 1 Is there an old manor house near your home? If so, ask someone to take you to see it. Afterwards compare it with the one described in this book.
- 2 Make a sketch of any manor house you know or whose picture you have seen.
- 3 Make a model in plasticine of any very old house you have seen or from any picture you can find.
- 4 Compare the fire place and ovens, shown on page 23, with those of to-day.
- 5 What is meant by solar, oriel, dais, minstrels' gallery, gargoyle?
- 6 Find a picture of a quaint carving, or, if you can, find a real one and copy it. Mount your copy on cardboard to hang up.
- 7 Study the quaint old picture on page 19. What are the various farm workers doing?
- 8 In the old woollen industry tell what is done between the processes of shearing and spinning.
- 9 Suppose you are a "spunster." Tell all about your work.
- 10 Describe the process of weaving.
- 11 How did it come about that landowners wanted to keep more sheep than formerly? How did sheep-farming affect the labourers?

- 12 Why was wool no cheaper although there were more sheep?
- 13 Tell what you know about the trade guilds.
- 14 What is meant by a "clothier"? Did clothiers help the woollen industry?
- 15 What country was England's rival in the woollen trade? Where is it situated?

The Age of Discovery

Pages 34-39

- 1 Why did men try to find a new way to the East?
- 2 Suppose you were a sailor on Columbus's ship. Write your story of the discovery of America.
- 3 How much of the New World had been discovered by the time Magellan sailed through the straits bearing his name?
- 4 Trace a rough map of the World and mark in red the routes of the voyages made by the early explorers.
- 5 *Chart Work*—Make a time-chart, showing the chief discoveries made between the years 1485 and 1520.

The Re-Birth of Learning

Pages 40-46

- 1 Take a sheet of foolscap and colour it with a wash of pale yellowish brown, to make it look like parchment. Rule a wide border all the way round. Copy out part of this book in your best script. The capital letters should be coloured and set in little squares. Rule lines very lightly in pencil to help you to keep your script straight. Make a pattern of your own design in the border. You will then have an idea of the work done by many monks.
- 2 What made learning difficult to acquire at this time?
- 3 What was the New Learning, and how was it spread?
- 4 Say what you know of Erasmus. Whom did he meet in England?
- 5 What do you know of More's "Utopia"?
- 6 Write down your own idea of a "Utopia."
- 7 Do you agree with Sir Thomas More's idea of war? Give reasons.
- 8 *Chart Work*—Prepare a time-chart and insert the following events—(Note these are not given in chronological order)—Enclosure of Common Lands, Translation of the Bible into English, Columbus discovers America, Magellan's Voyage round the World, The Founding of St. Paul's School.

The Reformation in England.*Pages 47-60*

- 1 Tell what you know of Cardinal Wolsey
- 2 Why was it important that the country should have a strong ruler?
- 3 Try to obtain a copy of Shakespeare's play, "Henry VIII" Read the scene of the Queen's trial (II iv), down to the end of the King's speech which follows her departure.
- 4 Act the scene of Wolsey's disgrace (III ii), beginning at his speech, "So farewell" Write out and learn by heart Wolsey's last words quoted in this chapter
- 5 What does England owe to the monks?
- 6 Why did Henry VIII decide to close the monasteries?
- 7 What was the Pilgrimage of Grace?
- 8 Copy a picture of an old abbey and colour it Is there an old abbey near your home or school?
- 9 What changes did the Reformers make in the English churches at this time?

Scotland in Tudor Times.*Pages 61-73*

- 1 James V of Scotland was a little boy when he came to the throne Mary Queen of Scots was a baby when her father, James V, died What effect would these things be likely to have on the government of the country?
- 2 Who were George Wishart, John Knox, the Lords of the Congregation?
- 3 How did Elizabeth help the Protestants in Scotland?
- 4 How was Mary Queen of Scots related to Queen Elizabeth? Make a family tree to show this
- 5 Why did Queen Mary flee to England? Give an account of her imprisonment there Why did Elizabeth allow her to be executed?

Good Queen Bess*Pages 73-77*

- 1 Why was Elizabeth called "Good Queen Bess"?
- 2 Tell what you know of William Cecil, Robert Dudley, Sir Philip Sidney

Fashions and Food

- *Pages 78-82*

- 1 Draw pictures of an Elizabethan lady and gentleman, and colour them. What is your opinion of their manner of dress?
- 2 What were the following — doublet, hose, nether stocks, farthingale, ruff?
- 3 Mention one or two of the things which came from Italy during the Elizabethan period.
- 4 What do you know of table manners in the days of Elizabeth. When were dinner time and supper-time?
- 5 Give some details as to the food which was commonly eaten.

Sea-Dogs of Old England

Pages 82-99

- 1 Which nations had been foremost in discovery up to the reign of Elizabeth?
- 2 How had the new lands been allotted by the Pope?
- 3 What do you know of Captain Hawkins?
- 4 How did the Spaniards learn to fear Drake?
- 5 Make a map to show the North East Passage. What voyages were made in this direction?
- 6 Make a map to show the North West Passage. What voyages were made to the North West?
- 7 Draw a picture of one of the ships of this time.
- 8 Why was Spain the chief enemy of England?
- 9 Make a map to show the course of the Armada from the time when it was first sighted.
- 10 What advantage had the English ships over the Spanish?
- 11 Where are the following places, and how are they connected with the story of the Armada — The Lizard, Cadiz, Plymouth, The Firth of Forth, Tilbury, The Orkneys?
- 12 Draw a picture of a Spanish galleon, and write a short description of it.
- 13 Act the scene of Raleigh and the cloak.
- 14 Draw a picture of Raleigh smoking and his frightened servant hurrying to "put out the fire."

- 15 What was it that Raleigh brought back with him from Virginia which plays an important part in our life to-day?
- 16 Where was "El Dorado"? Draw a map to show Raleigh's voyage in search of it
- 17 Tell the story of Raleigh's last voyage to find El Dorado
- 18 Copy and learn the lines, "Even such is time"

Ireland in the Reign of Elizabeth

Pages 100-102

- 1 What do you know about Spenser in Ireland?
- 2 How do you account for the rebellions in Ireland?
- 3 *Chart Work*—Make a time-chart, showing as many events as you can in English, Scottish, Irish and Foreign History during the reign of Elizabeth

Towns-People and Country-People

Pages 102-114

- 1 How was an apprentice bound to his master, and what duties had he to perform?
- 2 Study the picture on page 103 and note the differences in dress between the apprentices and the young courtiers
- 3 What laws were passed to keep the apprentices in order?
- 4 What is meant by indenture, journeyman, "flat-caps" "Clubs"?
- 5 Why did the lot of the country people become happier in Elizabeth's time?
- 6 What were the advantages of having land situated in one place instead of in scattered strips?
- 7 What was the effect in the country of the laws passed in Elizabeth's time?
- 8 How were the lazy people dealt with? How were the helpless, poor people dealt with?
- 9 How were prices kept up by dishonest traders?
- 10 What do you know of the "gentry of the road"?
- 11 Draw a picture of Paul's Walk as you imagine it
- 12 What is meant by footpad, stocks, pillory?
- 13 *Chart Work*—Prepare a chart, showing six social and industrial events which occurred between the years 1558 and 1603

Pleasures of the Period

Pages 114-127

- 1 Draw a picture of the country folk dancing round their Maypole. Colour it
- 2 Draw a picture of the "Lord of Misrule" and his followers
- 3 Make a list of favourite sports of the time
- 4 Draw a picture of a man riding at the quintain
- 5 Would you rather have lived in "Merrie England" than in the England of to-day? Give reasons
- 6 To whom do we owe the first plays in England? What were the subjects of these plays and where were they acted?
- 7 What do you know about the way in which these plays were acted?
- 8 Why were the players regarded as rogues in Elizabethan days?
- 9 Write down what you know about the life of William Shakespeare, and make a list of as many of his plays as you can. Mark with a cross those which you have read
- 10 What did the poet John Milton mean when he wrote —
 'What needs my Shakespeare for his honoured bones
 The labour of an age in piled stones?

Dear son of memory, great heir of fame
 What needst thou such weak witness of thy name?
 Thou in our wonder and astonishment
 Hast built thyself a livelong monument

- 11 Describe the theatre of Shakespeare's time. How were the plays acted? Describe the stage and the actors
- 12 Describe the musical instruments of the time. Draw a picture of one
- 13 What was the difference between Court dances and country dances, and why were they different?
- 14 What were Morris dances?
- 15 What do you know of the Masque?

Lesson-Time and Play-Time

Pages 128-133

- 1 Draw a picture of Shakespeare's schoolboy
- 2 Write out the time-table of this boy
- 3 What are the contents of his satchel?
- 4 What were the duties of "prepositors"?

- 5 Contrast your own school-day with young Gilbert's
- 6 Which of the children's toys of to-day would Elizabethan children have envied?
- 7 Write a dialogue between Dorothy of those days and Joan of to-day, or between Robin of those days and Jack of to-day

PART II

The First of the Stewart Line in England *Pages 134-140*

- 1 What is meant by the "Divine Right of Kings"?
- 2 How did the Authorised Version of the Bible come to be issued?
- 3 Tell the story of the Gunpowder Plot
- 4 Explain the following — "crown lands," "tunnage and poundage," "impositions," "monopolies," "impeachment," "dissolution of Parliament."

- 4 In what battles did Cromwell defeat the supporters of Charles II ?
- 5 It may be that in or near your town or village there happened some incident of the great Civil War. The incident may have been a battle, or a skirmish, or the siege of a castle or country house, or it may only have been the quartering of troops in the Parish Church. Find out all you can about it.

The Puritan Rule

Pages 160-176

- 1 With what countries did England make war during the Commonwealth, and why ?
- 2 What do you know about Admiral Blake, the "Rump," the Navigation Act, the Massacres in Savoy ?
- 3 "We walk smoothly over his (Cromwell's) rough, heroic life" What did Carlyle mean ?
- 4 What was Milton's great aim in life, and how did he serve his country ?
- 5 Copy and learn these lines, written in his blindness.

"Thus with the year
Seasons return, but not to me returns
Day, or the sweet approach of even or morn
Or sight of vernal bloom, or summer's rose,
Or flocks or herds, or human face divine,
But cloud instead and ever-during dark
Surrounds me, from the cheerful ways of men
Cut off, and, for the book of knowledge fair
Presented with a universal blank."

- 6 Make as complete a list as you can of Milton's poems.
- 7 Why did the people become discontented during the Puritan rule ?
- 8 Tell what you know of John Bunyan.
- 9 John Bunyan's famous book is an Allegory. Look up a dictionary for the meaning of this word. Do you know any other allegory ?
- 10 *Chart Work*—Construct a chart covering the period 1600 to 1660 and insert the following—Hampton Court Conference, Plantation of Ulster, The Authorised Version of the Bible, Death of Shakespeare, Invention by Galileo, The Petition of Right, Ship Money, The Civil War, The National Covenant, Navigation Act.

English Life in the Days of Charles II Pages 177-195

- 1 What changes took place in the life of the people when Charles II returned?
- 2 Name two famous diarists of this period. Write down some of the things they tell us about the London of their time.
- 3 Make a bird's-eye view of London as Harrison Ainsworth describes it. Mark St. Paul's in red ink as your centre.
- 4 Draw a picture of a London street at night with the bellman going his rounds.
- 5 Account for the outbreak of the Plague. Do you remember another great outbreak three hundred years earlier?
- 6 What good was done by the Great Fire?
- 7 Draw pictures of a lady, a gentleman and a country woman of Charles II's time, and colour them.
- 8 What means of travel existed during the seventeenth century?
- 9 Imagine you are a seventeenth century traveller between York and London. Give an account of your journey.
- 10 How were the roads supposed to be kept in repair?

The Work-a-Day World Pages 196-203

- 1 During the period of which you have been reading did people work in factories? If not, where was industry carried on?
- 2 Tell what you know of the early days of the silk and cotton industry.
- 3 Why was coal mining not so important in the seventeenth century as it is now?
- 4 What other mining was done?
- 5 Tell what you know of the iron industry during the same period.

From Restoration to Revolution Pages 204-209

- 1 Why were the laws known as the Clarendon Code passed? What were they?
- 2 What was the Secret Treaty of Dover?
- 3 What do you know of The Habeas Corpus Act, The Dutch fleet in the Medway, Dunkirk, The Spanish Netherlands, Titus Oates?